AMERICAN HISTORY

CHANCELLOR

127
122
117
112
107
102
45
40
35
30
25
D O M I N I O
Lake Manitob
PACIFIC OCEAN
Cape Flattery
VANCOUVER ISLAND
TITLE BY DISCOVERY 1792
WASHINGTON
BY EXPLORATION 1805
OLYMPIA
Seattle
Spokane
1889
Astoria
Portland
Columbia
BY ASTORIA SETTLEMENT 1811,
BY FLORIDA TREATY 1819,
AND BY OREGON TREATY WITH GREAT BRITAIN, 1845
SALEM
Baker City
Snake R.
1890
OREGON
1859
BOISE
Snake
Great Falls
HELENA
Butte
Missouri River
TERRITORY
MONTANA
1889
Yellowstone
Miles City
BISMARCK
NORTH DAKOTA
SOUTH DAKOTA
1889
PIER
Cape Mendocino
Eureka
Humboldt
Great Salt Lake
Ogden
SALT LAKE CITY
Green
Laramie
CHEYENNE
1867
WYOMING
1890
Purchased from FRANCE 1803
NEBRASKA
Platte
SACRAMENTO
Virginia City
CARSON
1864
NEVADA
UTAH
1890
CEDED BY MEXICO
1848
San Francisco
Fisco
Grand River
Leadville
DENVER
COLORADO
Colby
Colorado Springs
1876
Pueblo
KANSAS
Arkansas
Monterey
San Joaquin
1850
CALIFORNIA
Point Conception
Santa Barbara
Los Angeles
SANTA BARBARA ISLANDS
Prescott
ARIZONA
PHOENIX
Colorado
Gila River
Las Vegas
SANTA FE
1583
NEW MEXICO
Socorro
Rio Grande
Pecos
Canadian
CEDED BY TEXAS 1850
TEXAN ANNEXATION 1845
San Diego
Yuma
LOWER CALIFORNIA
GADSDEN PURCHASE FROM MEXICO 1853
Tucson
Deming
Nogales
El Paso
Fort
Original Boundary Louisiana Purchase 1845
Rio Grande
San Antonio
AUS
Matam
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
SCALE OF MILES 1899
0 50 100 150
LUZON
MANILA
CHINA SEA
MINDORO
PALAWAN
NEGROS
PANAY
SAMAR
PARAGUA
Sulu or Mindoro Sea
MINDANAO
Mindanao
BORNEO
PACIFIC OCEAN
ARCTIC OCEAN
Pt. Barrow
Barrow
East Cape
ARCTIC CIRCLE
Cape Prince of Wales
Nome
St. Michaels
Yukon
Kaltag
Circle
Dawson
DOMINION OF CANADA
Valdez
Bethel
Skagway
Wrangell
SITKA
KADIAK ISLAND
BERING SEA
ALEUTIAN ISLANDS
PACIFIC OCEAN
ALASKA
1867
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400
WAKE ISLAND 1898
WAKE ISLAND
GUAM ISLAND 1899
Part of SAMOA ISLANDS 1900
TUTU
L.L. POATES, ENGR., N.Y.
117
112
107
Longitude
102
West

THE
UNITED STATES
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
92 87 82 77 72 67
Lake Winnipeg
CANADA
Quebec
Montreal
OTTAWA
Kingston
Toronto
Buffalo
Rochester
Syracuse
ALBANY
BOSTON
MAINE
1820
Bangor
AUGUSTA
Portland
CONCORD
Portsmouth
Boston
1620
Cape Cod
PROVIDENCE
Newport
New Haven
HARTFORD
CONN.
NEW YORK
Newark
New York
1610
Scranton
TRENTON
PHILADELPHIA
1682
Wilmington
DOVER
Baltimore
Cape May
Cape Charles
Cape Henry
Norfolk
Petersburg
RICHMOND
VIRGINIA
1863
WASHINGTON
ANNAPOLIS
WEST
Wheeling
Marietta
Dayton
Cincinnati
Louisville
CHARLESTON
FRANKFORT
KENTUCKY
1792
Danville
RALEIGH
NORTH CAROLINA
Cape Hatteras
Cape Lookout
Cape Fear
Wilmington
Charlotte
Knoxville
NASHVILLE
TENNESSEE
1796
Chattanooga
SOUTH CAROLINA
COLUMBIA
Charleston
1670
Savannah
1732
GEORGIA
Augusta
ATLANTA
Birmingham
ALABAMA
1819
MONTGOMERY
JACKSON
Vicksburg
Mobile
BATON ROUGE
New Orleans
TALLAHASSEE
St. Marys River
Jacksonville
St. Augustine
1565
Tampa
GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Great Bahama Island
Great Abaco Island
BAHAMA ISLANDS
Eleuthera Island
NASSAU
Cat Island
Long Island
Exuma
Andros Islands
Cape Sable
Key West
Straits of Florida
HAVANA
Pinar del Rio
Sancti Spiritus
Puerto Principe
Santiago de Cuba
CUBA
Pine Island
1898
ORIGINAL AREA
THIRTEEN ORIGINAL STATES
1783
CEDED BY SPAIN 1819
FLORIDA
1845
LOUISIANA
1803
TERRITORY
1812
1804
1808
1837
1836
1846
1848
1818
1816
1802
1817
1866
1867
1898
WISCONSIN
Duluth
Marquette
Sault Ste. Marie
Mackinaw
LAKE SUPERIOR
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
LAKE ONTARIO
LAKE ERIE
MICHIGAN
Minneapolis
ST. PAUL
Oshkosh
MADISON
Milwaukee
Chicago
Bay City
LANSING
Grand Rapids
Detroit
Cleveland
Erie
Pittsburg
HARRISBURG
PENNSYLVANIA
Lancaster
Sioux City
Dubuque
IOWA
DES MOINES
Davenport
Rock Island
Ft. Wayne
Toledo
OHIO
Council Bluffs
Burlington
Peoria
INDIANA
COLUMBUS
Keokuk
ILLINOIS
INDIANAPOLIS
Terre Haute
SPRINGFIELD
Alton
St. Joseph
Quincy
St. Louis
Kansas City
JEFFERSON CITY
TOPEKA
Evansville
Cairo
Ohio River
Mississippi River
Missouri River
Arkansas River
Red River
Wichita
Springfield
Joplin
Tahlequah
INDIAN
Fort Smith
LITTLE ROCK
ARKANSAS
Hot Springs
Memphis
Tennessee River
Texarkana
Dallas
Trinity River
Houston
Galveston
Pensacola
Mobile
Chattahoochee River
Savannah River
Alabama River
Tombigbee River
Yazoo River
Red River
PORTO RICO
1899
SCALE OF MILES
0 10 20 30
SAN JUAN
Mayaguez
Ponce
CARIBBEAN SEA
PACIFIC OCEAN
HAWAII ISLANDS
1898
PINE ISLAND
1899
ROSE ISLAND
MANUA ISLAND
from 92 Greenwich 87 82 77

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A TEXT BOOK

OF

AMERICAN HISTORY

BY

WILLIAM ESTABROOK CHANCELLOR

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BLOOMFIELD, N. J.

AUTHOR OF "SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION," "ESSAYS IN NINETEENTH CENTURY HISTORY," "THE UNITED STATES: A HISTORY," AND VARIOUS TEXT BOOKS.

"*The preservation of the sacred fire of liberty and the destiny of the republican model of government are justly considered as deeply, perhaps as finally, staked on the experiment intrusted to the hands of the American people.*"

GEORGE WASHINGTON.

FIRST INAUGURAL ADDRESS, APRIL 30, 1789.

COMPLIMENTS OF H. M. TRASK 1328 ARCH ST., Philadelphia, Pa.

SILVER, BURDETT & COMPANY

NEW YORK BOSTON CHICAGO

LINCOLN'S AMERICANISM.

". . . In the great journal of things happening under the sun, we, the American people, find . . . ourselves in the peaceful possession of the fairest portion of the earth, as regards extent of territory, fertility of soil, and salubrity of climate. We find ourselves under the government of a system of political institutions conducing more essentially to . . . civil and religious liberty than any other of which . . . history tells us. . . . If ever danger reaches us, it must spring up among us. It cannot come from abroad. . . . As a nation of free men, we must live through all time, or die by suicide. . . . Let every American, every lover of liberty, every well-wisher to posterity, pledge . . . his life, his property, and his sacred honor . . . to the support of the Constitution and of the Laws. . . . Let every man remember that to violate the Laws is to trample on the blood of . . . the Revolution and to tear the charters of his own and his children's liberty. . . . Let reverence for the Laws be taught in schools and in colleges. . . . Let it be preached from the pulpits, proclaimed in legislative halls, and enforced in courts of justice. Let it become the political religion of the nation. . . .

"Our fathers and forefathers were iron men who fought for principle. . . . Among us perhaps half our people are not descendants of the men . . . of the Revolution: they have come from Europe themselves, or their ancestors, since 1776, to find themselves our equals. . . . They cannot trace their connection by blood with those glorious men and make themselves feel that they are part of us. But when they look through that old Declaration of Independence, they find those old men saying, 'We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal,' and they feel that the moral sentiment then taught, evidences their relation to those men, that it is the source of all moral principle in them, and that they have a right to claim it as though they were blood of the blood and flesh of the flesh of the men who wrote that Declaration; and so they are. That is the electric cord in the Declaration that links the hearts of patriotic and liberty-loving men together; that will link those patriotic hearts as long as the love of freedom exists in the minds of men throughout the world. . . . That sentiment gave liberty to this country, and hope to all mankind for all future time. . . . It promised that in due time the weight should be lifted from the shoulders of all men, and that all men should have an equal chance. . . . So I say let the principle . . . that all men are created equal . . . be reached as nearly as possible, for it is the standard of the highest moral perfection. 'Be ye therefore perfect, even as your Father in Heaven is perfect.'"

—*From the Speeches of Abraham Lincoln.*

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PREFACE.

From the point of view of the American citizen in the first decade of the twentieth century, our history as a nation presents a wider range than in any early epoch. In this wider range of our interests there is a distinctively new feature: we now meet upon our horizons in business and in politics, the other nations of the world as the greatest of them all. We are the first democratic empire in universal history. From this new point of view the events of American history take on new meanings. Changes in relations and proportions necessitate the rewriting of history.

History is a record of events that have affected the social welfare. The record of an event is incomplete without an explanation of its causes and effects. Interpretation is an essential part of history. The statement of a fact is not history, but journalism. Generalizing upon facts not themselves recited is philosophy. But history is neither journalism nor philosophy. Nor is it a sum of biographies. A biographical event affects the man's welfare. Because it is of human interest, it is not therefore necessarily of historical importance.

An epitome of facts, a philosophy of events, or a body of biographical details is not a history, or a school history, however it may be entitled. History deals with events of general human interest, tracing them in their sequence and order, showing their causes and effects. History is essentially a method of revealing the past by finding its truth and explaining it.

The boy or girl who in grammar or high school or academy reads and studies a text-book of American history spends a year, or two or three years, upon the book that the teacher often

reads through in a single day. This long use of the book, this slow progress through the subject, imposes certain conditions that I as a teacher of many classes of students have endeavored to meet. Whatever may be the opinions of others competent or incompetent to judge as to the qualities of this text-book, there is nothing in these pages that has not been placed here deliberately. I have meant to develop and to preserve in the students the historical perspective, the faith in the progress of Americanism to the ultimate realization of the finest principles of our human nature, and to awake in them the desire for the truth that makes men free.

A great deal of human history is too hard for even the wisest to understand. A great deal more will never be known, for knowledge of the facts disappeared with the doers of the deeds. History is essentially a difficult study, for it presents the relations of geography, chronology, and psychology, involving in all its events space, time, and cause. Most of its causes lie in the facts and principles of human nature, of which the young have little knowledge and the ignorant little understanding.

The outlines of this text were begun more than a dozen years ago. The entire text was written several times upon the basis of source materials and the standard historians; and then read in connection with several well-known school texts to see that no essentials were omitted. I have suppressed details and emphasized what seemed the important affairs. Where the record here differs from the records in other texts, the difference is intentional and is based upon authority.

The plan of this history was submitted before completion of the text to a score of leading educators: among them, Charles F. Thwing, D.D., LL.D., President of Western Reserve University; Albert Leonard, Ph. D., Editor of *The Journal of Pedagogy;* James M. Greenwood, Ph.D., Superintendent of Schools, Kansas City; Walter B. Gunnison, Ph.D., Principal Erasmus

Hall High School, Brooklyn, New York; and Wm. H. Mace, Ph.D., Professor of History, Syracuse University. As now developed in the text, the plan represents fairly a composite of the views of many men of the highest professional standing.

The manuscript and proofs have been read critically by Mr. Robert Comin, Instructor of History, Eastern District High School, Brooklyn, New York. The account of the War of Secession was read in manuscript and in type by a distinguished General in the Army of the United States. The entire plan and the manuscript were reviewed by Mr. Eugene F. Beecher, of the Tennessee Coal, Iron & Railroad Company, Birmingham, Alabama, a business man who has found time to preserve in his own scholarship and literary skill the traditions of his family.

To Mr. Fletcher W. Hewes, author of the *Statistical Atlas of the Census of 1880*, a monumental work, and my colleague in the preparation of our work, *The United States: A History*, and to Miss L. Pearl Hewes, instructor in the Montclair Free Common Schools, I am indebted for the selection of most of the illustrations in the text and for other valuable assistance.

To all of these friendly critics and to others not mentioned here, I desire to extend my thanks.

I shall receive with gratitude any corrections of errors, typographical or other, that may remain in the text of this, the first edition.

BLOOMFIELD, N. J., December 1, 1903. W. E. C.

To those who have kindly called my attention to several typographical errors in the first edition, I beg leave to express my appreciation of their kindness.

August 1, 1904. W. E. C.

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.

1. This book is an outline of American history from 1492 to 1903. At points of especial interest, do not hesitate to bring other material to the class, for outside reading and study will greatly expand the student's knowledge, and widen his interest.

2. Pictures, such as are found in various histories and in current magazine articles, are of great value in developing the historical imagination. A portfolio of pictures, even though some are the crude illustrations of newspapers, will be examined day after day and month after month by the students with great pleasure and profit.

3. The relation of history to geography is so immediate and so vital, that constant reference of events to the places in which they occurred helps the child's knowledge, not only in history, but also in geography. Innumerable repetitions are necessary in order to locate permanently in the mind the maps of various regions. Such map-knowledge is extremely valuable, though the majority of people are still deficient in their knowledge of geography, and journey through life without knowing whether Chicago is north, northeast, or northwest of St. Louis, and whether Cincinnati is or is not on a direct line between Philadelphia and St. Louis. Nothing, perhaps, more greatly assists the pupil to a discriminating knowledge of the difference between colonial and modern times, than an explanation upon the map of the fact that rapid stage-coaching between Boston and Philadelphia two hundred years ago involved two weeks' travel, while now the two cities are but one-third of a day apart by the rapid express trains.

4. This book is designed either for reading, or for exposition by the teacher with discussion by the class, or for text-book study, or as a basis for wider examination and discussion of its various topics. It may be used by the same class for several years.

5. The ever-recurring question of dates may be answered by saying that there are two uses for dates. One use is to show the relative

times of events; the other use is for the permanent equipment of the mind. While the pages of a History require a considerable number of dates in order to show the sequence in which events occurred, no one needs to know permanently more than a dozen, or at most a score of dates in American chronology. From these, all other important dates can be easily estimated with sufficient accuracy. On pages 9–11 will be found lists of dates of primary importance.

6. The questions at the end of each chapter have been placed there for the purpose of assisting the children to review by themselves, or with others, the facts of the lessons that have been studied. Questions such as these show a child what the author of the book regards as the principal things to be learned from the pages. Teachers will necessarily ask many more questions than are given here.

7. I have introduced certain lists of books suitable for reading by the pupils, and lists suitable for reading by teachers. I have presented also a bibliography, pages 633 *et seq.*, of such books as a school library may reasonably be expected to have.

8. The length of the lessons to be assigned daily must depend upon so many different elements in different schools as greatly to vary. Reviews are of extreme importance in history. Every day should include a review, as well as an advance. There should also be days wholly given up to reviews, and these should come frequently. We who are grown up never tire of reviews when we make them for ourselves, because we introduce with the old material some that is new, making the whole body of knowledge vital and interesting. At the time of the review, simple analyses, such as have been introduced upon some of these pages, may be placed upon the blackboard.

9. The topical recitation by the pupil standing at his desk is a very good method of interesting the individuals and the class in history, and consequently should be introduced frequently to vary the brisk question-and-answer recitation in which all members of the class are involved. In my own experience, which has included the teaching of many classes in history, I have found that the most successful device is that of sending a few pupils to the blackboard, each to write a few sentences on different topics. These sentences are then discussed by the class. As this exercise correlates with instruction in English language and grammar, it becomes an

extremely valuable one in the child's education. Further, it requires the child to express history through written language, thus employing eye and hand; and when the sentences are read, the ear also is trained.

10. Students often find interesting newspaper accounts both of recent events, and of history long past. While the reading of such accounts must not be allowed to interfere with the progress of the class in systematic and progressive study, yet due attention to this current literature helps to develop an enthusiasm in historical study that is the certain guarantee of the student's improvement in knowledge and understanding.

11. The preparation of compositions and essays upon history gives opportunity to the pupils to make booklets and pamphlets illustrated by their own work with pen, pencil, or brush, and by pictures from magazines. Such compositions are always interesting additions to the annual school exhibit, and are highly prized by the pupils themselves.

12. An extra-illustrated American history book may be made by taking two copies of this or another text and tearing them apart, to use the pages in as large a scrap-book as may seem advisable. Upon the large pages may then be pasted, or otherwise fastened, additional illustrations from books, or the student's own work, and also clippings or copies of passages from various other books, or from magazines, or from the student's own essays. Such an enlarged American history made each year by the class represents the student's own interests. A shelf full of such histories is a valuable record of a school's teaching through a period of years.

13. A visit to museums and libraries with historical collections stimulates interest. Often visits to scenes where famous events have taken place are also helpful. Historical fiction, when read critically, is not objectionable, since it quickens the imagination. A few good books are suggested in Appendix VII.

14. Everyone nowadays knows the helpfulness of the modern librarian of the public library. It is not perhaps quite as well known that the public librarian of a neighboring town or city is always ready to advise and to assist, and usually to lend books to the teacher of the village or country school.

AMERICAN CHRONOLOGY.

LOOKING BACKWARD FROM NOW.

Twelve Landmarks.

1898. The War with Spain.
1861–5. The Civil War.
1846–8. The Mexican War.
1812–5. Second War with Great Britain.
1803. The Louisiana Purchase.
1787. Adoption of the Constitution and Northwest Ordinance.
1775–83. War of Independence.
1733. Georgia, the last of the "Original States," is founded.
1607. Virginia, the first of the "Original States," is founded.
1541. De Soto discovers the Mississippi River.
1497. Cabot discovers the Continent of North America.
1492. Columbus discovers the "New World" (San Salvador).

The original date of American history is at the bottom.

Accessions of Territory.

		Square Miles.
1898.	Porto Rico } by war and purchase	4,000
	Philippine Islands }	114,000
1898.	The Hawaiian Islands by annexation	7,000
1867.	Alaska Purchase	577,000
1853.	Gadsden Purchase	46,000
1848.	Mexican Cession by war and purchase	523,000
1846.	(Oregon Boundary settled.)	
1845.	Texas by annexation	371,000
1819.	Florida Purchase	59,000
1803.	Louisiana Purchase	1,033,000
1783.	British Recognition of American Independence.	

Great Expositions.

1904. Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis.
1902. Inter-State and West Indian at Charleston.
1901. Pan-American at Buffalo.
1898. Trans-Mississippi at Omaha.
1895. Southern Exposition at Atlanta.
1893. Columbian at Chicago.
1876. Centennial at Philadelphia.
1853. World's Fair at New York.

LOOKING FORWARD FROM 1000 A. D.

Critical Dates.

1000 (?) The Northmen visit our coasts.
1492. Columbus discovers San Salvador, Oct. 12.
1497. The Cabots discover North America.
1513. Balboa discovers the Pacific Ocean.
1522. Del Caño in Magellan's ship completes the first voyage around the world.
1541. De Soto discovers the Mississippi River.
1565. The Spanish settle St. Augustine, Florida.
1598. The Spanish found Santa Fé, New Mexico.
1605. The French establish Port Royal (Annapolis) in Acadia.
1607. The English settle in Jamestown, Virginia.
1608. The French found Quebec.
1613. The Dutch found a trading-post on Manhattan Island (New York).
1620. The English (Pilgrims) settle at Plymouth, Massachusetts.
1634. The English settle in Maryland.
1638. The Swedes settle on the Delaware River.
1664. The English take New Amsterdam and call it New York.
1665. The English settle in New Jersey.
1670. The English settle in South Carolina.
1682. The English found Philadelphia.
1689–97. King William's War.
1702–13. Queen Anne's War.
1718. The French found New Orleans.

1732. The English establish Georgia.
1744–8. King George's War.
1748. A company is formed to make settlements on the Ohio River.
1754–63. French and Indian War.
1770. Boston Massacre.
1775–83. War of Independence.
1776. Declaration of Independence.
1778. French Alliance.
1787. The Constitution of the United States is adopted.
1789. Northwest Ordinance.
1789. George Washington becomes the first President.
1803. Napoleon Bonaparte sells the Louisiana Territory to us.
1807. Robert Fulton invents the steamboat.
1812–5. Second War with Great Britain.
1820. The Missouri Compromise becomes law.
1823. The Monroe Doctrine is published.
1828. The steam railroad is begun.
1832. Jackson replies to the Nullification Ordinance of South Carolina.
1844. Samuel F. B. Morse sends the first telegram.
1845. Texas is annexed.
1846–8. The Mexican War.
1846–57. The development of practical sewing-machines takes place.
1850. The Fugitive Slave Law is passed by Congress.
1852. "Uncle Tom's Cabin" is published.
1861–5. The Civil War.
1863. Lincoln puts into effect the Emancipation Proclamation.
1866. The first successful Atlantic Cable is laid.
1876. A. G. Bell invents the first successful telephone.
1879. Specie payment is resumed.
1883. First Civil Service Act is passed by Congress.
1898. War with Spain.
1898. The Hawaiian Islands are annexed.
1902. The President's Commission settles the coal-mine controversy between "Capital and Labor."
1903. The Alaska Boundary is settled by arbitration.

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OUTLINE OF THE STORY.

1492–1904.

§ 1. The Age of Discovery and Exploration, 1492–1607.

More than four hundred years ago, the people who lived upon the other side of the Atlantic Ocean discovered that the lands that they knew were not all of the earth. To one man, Christopher Columbus, belongs the credit of the discovery of a New World, 1492, but by many men the truth of the discovery was confirmed till all people knew that the earth is round, and that two vast continents are west of Europe, three thousand miles away. For a hundred and more years after Columbus, sailors and soldiers came in slow-sailing ships from Spain, Portugal, France, Holland, and England to explore the wonderful land of which men had only dreamed before. Here they marched hundreds and thousands of miles, toiling, fighting, praying, and dying, some for gold, some for "the passage to India," some for lands for their sovereigns, and some for the souls of the native Indians.

§ 2. The Amazing Success of Three Centuries, 1607–1904.

Scarcely three centuries ago these adventurous spirits from across the sea, to whom Europe was beginning to seem like an Old World, hopeless, made their first efforts permanently to settle here. The history of our country, now the United States of North America, is the history of the permanent colonies that, beginning in Virginia, 1607, and Massachusetts, 1620, have steadily increased and multiplied, until from Maine to California, and from Florida to Washington, we have covered the land with the homes of

eighty millions of people. Meantime we have secured independence from every nation in that Old World, whose offspring we are; and we have grown rich beyond any other people, not only because Nature gave to this part of the earth great forests, extraordinarily fertile fields, abundant minerals in the mountains, and mighty lakes and rivers, but also because we are a self-governing nation of men equal before the law, to whom all opportunities have been in common.

§ 3. Wars with the Red Men.

In these three hundred years since Virginia was first settled, great wars and little wars have been fought upon our soil. Our ancestors came here from different nations, and settled in various communities, often not friendly to each other. The "red men," who had been here for untold centuries before any white men had ever set foot upon this continent, usually resisted the advance of the newcomers into their hunting-grounds and gardens of corn and tobacco. We have had battles with the Indians within the memory of men now living, in the prime of their years, but the greatest Indian wars were fought two hundred years ago.

The great nations of Europe, especially France and England, were extremely jealous of each other two centuries ago, and each wished to get possession of all of North America above the Rio Grande, leaving to Spain all of Central and South America. When England had won the final victory, 1763, after long and terrible conflicts, the various colonies of settlers from England, France, Sweden, and Holland, all of which had been subject to her for a hundred years, found that they were expected to help pay the money-costs of these wars. They resisted the rule of

the mother-country across the ocean, 1775–1783, and after a long war, in which they were greatly helped by France, they became the United States of North America, only a century and a quarter ago.

§ 4. A Nation with a Republican Constitution, 1787–1904.

The new nation adopted a republican Constitution, and elected the hero of the War of Independence, George Washington, our first President. Even at that time, 1787–1789, nearly two centuries after the first settlement in Virginia, there were less than four million citizens in the United States. But we soon began to grow very rapidly in numbers, and to spread over a vastly greater territory than that of the original thirteen States.

§ 5. The Early Expansion of the Republic, 1773–1803.

At first the colonists from Europe settled only along the Atlantic coast. At the time of the Revolutionary War there was but one town of any size more than a few miles from the sea-coast. This town was Lancaster in Pennsylvania. The largest cities were New York, Philadelphia, Boston, and Charleston. But during the War of Independence and after it was over, our forefathers began to move their families into the West beyond the Appalachian Mountains. One of our great Presidents, Thomas Jefferson, secured beyond the Mississippi River a vast area, which then belonged to France, 1803; this purchase doubled the size of our country.

§ 6. The Terrible Question of the Negro Slaves was Involved in that of the Right of a State to Secede, 1820–1865.

The Northern section of the United States became very largely industrial and commercial, while the Southern part

had a wonderful agricultural development in raising cotton and tobacco. Free labor became the system in the North, and slave labor that in the South. This difference led to misunderstandings, which grew worse and worse through the years. Meantime the United States fought a war with Mexico, 1846–1848, securing as a result another vast area. The question whether in these vast new regions industry and agriculture were to be carried on by free labor or by slave labor, and the question whether a State of the United States has the right to withdraw from the Union of States so as to control all its affairs, political, social, economic, and international, finally led to a terrible conflict, 1861–1865.

§ 7. All Men Became Free and Equal before the Law, 1863–1870.

During this War of Secession, Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, issued an Emancipation Proclamation, 1863, setting free all slaves in the States that had confederated against the Union. The results of this, the greatest civil war in the history of the nations of the world, were that slavery ceased, and that the Union of the States was maintained. These matters were legally settled by amendments, 1865–1870, to the Constitution.

§ 8. The Number and Wealth of Our People and the Extent of Our Empire.

By the beginning of the Civil War, the thirteen original States had added to their number twenty-one more; and the total population was over thirty-two millions, more than six times as many as at the beginning of our nation, scarcely seventy years before. In the next forty years, despite the terrible loss of life and property due to the war, we grew in numbers to more than seventy-six million people.

The development of the railroads and of the telegraph lines, and the finding of precious and useful metals, together with many inventions in machinery and discoveries in science, and especially in electricity, have made us very rich. We purchased Alaska from Russia, in 1867, and gained Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands as the result of a war with Spain, which we began because of Spanish oppression in Cuba, and because of the destruction of an American naval vessel, the *Maine*, in Havana harbor, in 1898.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, the United States had thirty-eight different cities with over one hundred thousand people each; while the largest city, New York, only a hundred and ten years before then had only forty-two thousand. Our largest city had three and a half million people, 1900, which was more than were in all the colonies together when the Revolutionary War began, in 1775.

§ 9. The Purpose of the Study of Our Country's History is that We may become Wise as well as Loyal Citizens.

In a century and a quarter our nation has grown to be a great power in the general affairs of all the nations of the world, and our people have become in culture and wealth equal to any other people. Such, in outline, is the history of the United States. If we study all the rest of our lives, we can never learn all the details of this rise of a great nation, which has been more rapid and more astonishing in its range and vigor than the rise of any other nation in all the history of mankind. But we do not need to know all the details. It is enough for us now to learn sufficient facts to inspire us to be intelligent, good, and patriotic citizens of so great and so dear a country.

Surface Map
of the
United States.

HISTORICAL AND GEOGRAPHICAL RELATIONS.

American history tells of —

1. The English settlement of the Atlantic coastal plain and of the New England foothills.

2. The winning of the St. Lawrence basin and of the great interior Mississippi basin by the French.

3. The conquest of New France, beyond the barriers of the Alleghany plateau and of the Adirondacks, by the English.

4. The national independence of the English colonies and the formation of the United States to hold the coastal plain as far south as Florida, and also New England, the Alleghany plateau, and the northeastern quarter of the Mississippi basin.

5. The settlement of "the land of the western waters."

6. The purchase of the western part of the Mississippi basin.

7. The purchase of the southeastern part of the Gulf-Atlantic coastal plain.

8. The struggle between slavery, which held the Gulf-Atlantic coastal plain, and free-labor, which held the Alleghany plateau and the Ohio river section of the upper Mississippi basin, for the possession of the whole of the western part of the basin.

9. The annexation of Texas and the completion of our ownership of the Gulf coastal plain as far south as the Rio Grande.

10. The winning of nearly all of the great Rocky

Mountain plateau by war with Mexico, and the settlement of various localities in the Far West by adventurers in search of the precious metals.

11. The adjustment of our northern boundary by which we secured the rich Columbia plateau and valley.

12. The epochal war between the slaveholders who held all the Gulf-Atlantic coastal plain from the Rio Grande to the Delaware, the Mississippi valley from the river's mouth to and above the Missouri, the Alleghany plateau to Mason and Dixon's Line, and the southern side of the Ohio valley, and the free-labor people in the regions north and west of the slave-labor regions.

13. The defeat of the barriers of the Alleghanies and of the Rockies by the steam locomotive running upon iron and later upon steel rails, and the demonstration that by means of steam transportation and of electric communication a democratic government can administer efficiently the affairs of a great people.

14. Through all this course of events the occupation of fertile soils, the finding of coal, iron, gold, silver, copper, and petroleum, discoveries in science, the accompanying progress in mechanical invention, the multiplication of our people, and the advance in personal liberty, culture, and morality, and in international power.

15. The development of a new and characteristic civilization, essentially better than that of any other land or time, and manifested in a wider region and by more people, the whole amounting to a practical demonstration of the industrial value of religious and political liberty.

A thousand relations appear between the physical geography of our country and its history. To understand the

principle, imagine how different the history would have been in the following conditions:—

1. If the Alleghanies had run east and west, the slaveholders could have fortified themselves impregnably behind that natural mountain barrier, and there would have been two or more nations here. Thus the Alps have separated the peoples of Europe into nations.

2. If the Mississippi River ran east, the story of settlement here would have been entirely different. Probably we would have become one solid nation, not a federation of States.

3. If the Rockies had been in the East and the Alleghanies in the West, it is likely that the whole land to-day would be Spanish by settlement from Mexico.

4. If a mountain plateau separated the St. Lawrence basin from the Mississippi, probably the French would never have held the Mississippi valley.

5. If all the country had been a great plain from the Rockies to the Atlantic, it is almost certain that Spain, France, and England would have fought upon this Continent, terrible wars, one feature of whose outcome is certain. Doubtless not a republic, but a monarchy, would be the government of whatever people were here.

6. If from Lake Superior there had stretched westward a great valley to the Pacific Ocean, the French certainly would have pushed on, still further extending the empire of New France. And if, at the same time, there had been a plateau where there is now the Mississippi valley, western Canada might have remained French to this day, while the English nation here would have been confined to the eastern part of our country.

7. If that bow of plateaus and mountains, resting upon a submerged plain which presents itself above the waters lying between North and South, in the form of the islands of the Greater and Lesser Antilles, had been a continuous land-barrier to the advance of the Spaniards, the discovery of the Pacific would have been long delayed. The first circumnavigation of the globe might not have taken place for a century. And the history of the sixteenth century in Europe as well as in America would have been very different from what it was.

SUGGESTED READINGS.

1. Brigham's *Geographical Influences in American History*.
2. Semple's *American History and its Geographic Conditions*.
3. Standard textbooks of *Physical Geography* and such elementary school texts on *Geography* as deal with physiography.
4. *West Indies*, in Encyclopedia Britannica. Note map of ocean-depths in Gulf of Mexico.

SUGGESTED TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION.

1. Rivers as State and National Boundaries : also Rivers not Boundaries. Why not ?
2. Rivers as Inlets for Settlers, especially the Potomac and the Hudson.
3. The Mississippi and its Tributaries, especially the Ohio.
4. The Appalachian Ranges as Barriers.
5. The Arid West and its Effects : (*a*) Upon Early Exploration ; (*b*) Upon the Extension of Slavery ; (*c*) Upon Migration and Settlement after 1848.
6. The many Harbors upon the Atlantic Coast in Relation to Early Settlement and Trade.
7. Lakes, Mountains, Forests, and Deserts as Boundaries of North American Nations.
8. Climate and the Indians : also the Relations of Coastal Plains, Mountains, River Valleys to Indian life.

PART ONE.

DISCOVERY AND SETTLEMENT.

CHAPTER I.

THE EARLY SEA VOYAGES.

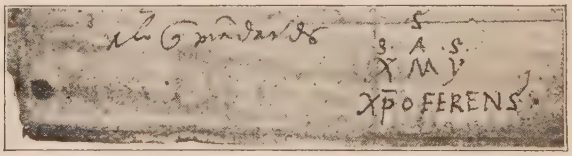
§ 1. Columbus Spent His Life in Adventure.

In 1470, there came to Lisbon, the capital city of Portugal, a sailor who was dreaming of lands far, far away on the western side of the ocean. He had barely escaped with his life from a sea-fight, and was borne ashore upon a plank from the wreck. Ever since he was a boy in Genoa, the great seaport town of Italy, Christopher Columbus had listened with eager soul to stories of strange adventures out on the Sea of Darkness, supposed by the common people to girdle the flat earth. Before he was thirty years of age he could say of himself, "Wherever ship has sailed, there have I journeyed." It was his life-mission to make a pathway for mankind across the stormy and mysterious Atlantic.

§ 2. A Few Scholars in Italy and Portugal Believed that the Earth is Round.

From Lisbon, on the eastern side of the Atlantic, Columbus made many voyages upon the great ocean, venturing south along the coast of Africa, and north, it may be, as far as Iceland. His brother, Bartholomew, lived with him in Lisbon, and Christopher married there Philippa Moniz, whose father, a sailor, was once governor

of the Island of Madeira, where Columbus lived for a time after his marriage. Portugal was a commercial country, and numbered many seafaring men among its inhabitants. A "School of Navigators" for the study of geography had long existed there, and a few of the citizens believed, as did the scholars of Italy, that the world is not flat but round, and that by sailing westward, one must reach the shores of China. Upon his great voyage Columbus had with him a map of the ocean by Toscanelli, a geographer, of Italy, and used it constantly. But among the people of Portugal, Spain, and Italy, there was no other man determined, if need be at the cost of his life, to prove that the earth is round.



Signature of Columbus.

§ 3. All Viewed a Long Ocean Voyage with Terror.

The sailor who was destined to discover America was a very poor man. He needed ships for his expedition; he needed also the protection of some great monarch so that he might take possession of his discoveries and hold them as their lord and ruler. To secure ships and royal protection was almost impossible, for even persons of wealth and power were still so ignorant as to believe that if a ship sailed too far out on the Sea of Darkness, it would finally begin to slide down hill, and would either fall off the earth

or be ingulfed in the waters. No man was ready to help Columbus in what seemed a fatal adventure.

It is true that at this time the eastern islands of the Atlantic had been discovered, including Madeira, five hundred miles out from the mainland; but the terrific winter storms brought many wrecks ashore, for the little ships of those times were frail. Only the most reckless seamen dared venture far beyond sight of land.

§ 4. Monarchs, Merchants, and Bankers Lent Aid.

After many years the arguments of Columbus persuaded King John of Portugal to send out a ship, but the King did this secretly; and the ship soon came back, having found only a strangely carved paddle, four hundred miles out from land. In 1484, Columbus, who had failed to persuade his own city of Genoa to give him ships, sent his brother Bartholomew to see King Henry of England, and went himself to visit the Court of King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella of Spain. At Palos he made good friends of two merchants, by name Pinzon, who gave him money and helped him forward on his journey. For eight years he continued to beg ships and protection from Ferdinand and Isabella. At last, after these two monarchs of Castile and Aragon had conquered the Moors of Granada, in their joy over final victory in long wars, they agreed to ask the city of Palos to lend Columbus the three ships due to them each year for three months as the regular tribute. Isabella permitted the Court banker, Santangel, to give Columbus some of his own money, seventeen thousand florins, to help in hiring men for the crews; the Pinzons lent a third as much, and went as captains of the two smaller boats.

§ 5. Columbus had in His Crew Men from All the Nations of Western and Southern Europe.

Columbus set out August 3, 1492, with one hundred and twenty men, some of them debtors promised release from their creditors if they would go, others of them prisoners from Palos jail, offered pardon, and a few others

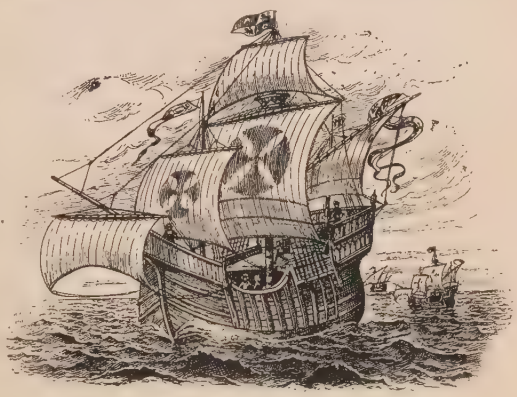
Columbus at dawn discovering the New World.

Cristoforo Colombo. Born, 1446; died, 1506. Italian Sailor. No authentic portrait exists. The name means Christ-bearing dove, and greatly influenced his life.

who volunteered from recklessness of character. Among them were Italians, Spaniards, Portuguese, Frenchmen, Englishmen, Irishmen, and Jews. Very, very few of his companions believed in Columbus or understood the nature of his undertaking.

§ 6. An Island was Discovered, October 12, 1492.

After ten weeks of weary watching by night and by day, after threatened mutinies of the crews, after almost heart-breaking disappointments from mirages in the skies, this serene, self-confident, foresighted man brought his three ships, the *Santa Maria*, *Pinta*, and *Niña*, to a little island on the western side of the Atlantic Ocean. There he landed October 12, 1492, and called the island San Salvador, taking possession in the name of Spain.



The Santa Maria, Pinta, and Niña.

§ 7. Columbus made Four Voyages.

After sailing about for three months and finding Cuba and other islands, he went back to Europe with several Indians and many trophies, ornaments, utensils, fruits, and trinkets. He was hailed throughout Spain as the discoverer of the way to the Indies. The sovereigns of Spain, the lords and the grandees, feasted him, and loaded him with presents. He made three later voyages, seeing South America in 1498. As governor he ruled the Indians unwisely, and made many enemies among the Spaniards. His health grew worse and worse, and neither rich nor honored he died in 1506, eighteen months after the death of Queen Isabella, who had always been his friend and supporter.

§ 8. Columbus was One of the Greatest Men in all History Because He Accomplished what Others neither Dared nor Cared to Undertake.

Columbus sought an ocean route to India and China, from many motives and for many reasons. He hoped to plant the cross of the Church in the soil of the Orient, to become himself the princely master of lands and peoples, and to grow so rich by conquest and trade that he could organize a crusade against the unbelieving Saracens for the recovery of the Holy Sepulcher at Jerusalem. He believed that Cathay was but a few days' voyage beyond Madeira.

Religious, political, financial, and scientific ambitions all conspired in his soul to make him one of the greatest men of all history. Columbus deserves the entire credit for the discovery of America, even though others saw the mainland of South America before he reached it, and though he never saw the mainland of North America. He alone had the courage, the self-sacrifice, and the ability to achieve what others simply dreamed. His life story, both as told by himself and as recorded by his contemporaries, is that of one who sacrificed everything to his one great purpose of finding the ocean route to India. Neither poverty nor the loneliness of a mind charged with a new idea, neither public fear of him as a madman nor bitter opposition to him as a destroyer of common beliefs, could turn him aside from his object. Political and religious persecution followed him even after his great discovery; and he died sorrowing because the mighty fresh-water current of the Orinoco convinced him that he had found, not the islands of the Orient, but a great continent. He had found instead of India, China and Japan, a new world.

§ 9. The Discovery of the New World Revolutionized the Conditions of Human Life in Europe, Asia, and Africa.

This discovery was of extraordinary importance to mankind at the end of the fifteenth century. Unrest in their habitations had caused the great migrations of the Teutonic nations southward from Germany and Scandinavia in earlier centuries. The Genoese were of the same Teutonic blood as the Vikings. Unrest of the Saracens and Turks had urged them westward from Southwestern Asia, till finally they had seized Constantinople in 1453. Unrest of all Europeans had driven them against the Saracens in many Crusades southeastward to Jerusalem. Now the unrest was of the mind and heart. An awakening of the mind as seen in the Italian and French Renaissance, which continued to the time of Columbus, was leading to an arousing of the heart soon to be seen in the German and English Reformations. In all nations there was the sense of need of some new land of adventure, of opportunity, and of refuge.

§ 10. Columbus in Discovering the New World Set Free the Old.

Columbus felt all this and more. To him the recently invented compass pointed westward as the route to which to divert the rich trade of Persia, India, and China; for the paths of the Asian caravans were now imperiled by Turkish and other brigands, and the Mediterranean was infested with pirates. As Islam pressed against Christendom, Columbus saw in the vision of far Cathay a new field for the Christian missionary. We call Columbus the discoverer of America, but that great man was equally the savior of Europe. He made the Mediterranean, formerly the

scene of the world's trade, a minor inland sea. He turned all Europe from facing east to facing west. He gave the poor and the oppressed à new world. His persistent soul and his keen mind made him one of the most useful and one of the most heroic men of all the world's history.

§ 11. Marco Polo had Begun the Movement of Oriental Travel that Resulted in Finding the New World.

In the thirteenth century a Venetian lad with his father and uncle made a trip overland into China, where they remained for many years engaged in trade. They returned to Venice by way of the sea to India, and then once again traveled by caravan across Persia. They were gone from Italy twenty-four years, and on their return had many wonderful stories to tell of the wealth and customs of Asia. These the youngest of the party wrote out in 1299, in a book called Marco Polo's Travels. The adventures and the wonders were greatly exaggerated, but the book made all people curious about the Far East, and made some anxious to get there by a short route.

§ 12. Vasco da Gama Discovered the Sea-route to India.

Early in the fifteenth century the Portuguese began systematic efforts to discover the facts about the west coast of Africa. They found Madeira in 1416, and the Azores in 1449. In 1484, the year Columbus went to Spain, they crossed below the equator, and first beheld the glory of the Southern Cross in the skies, a sight hitherto unknown to the eyes of white men. Two years later Bartholomew Diaz, with Bartholomew Columbus among his companions, reached the Cape of Good Hope. In 1498, the year of

Known and Unknown World.

Christopher Columbus's third voyage, in which he reached the coast of South America, Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape of Good Hope and went up the east coast of Africa, and across the Indian Ocean to Madras in India. This voyage proved what the Arabs had told the Portuguese, that India could be reached by the ocean. This was the crowning event in the history of the persistent efforts of the Portuguese to win for Western Europe from Venice, until then mistress of the rich Oriental trade, supremacy upon the sea. It led to the voyages by which Portugal won the East Indies.

§ 13. John Cabot and Others soon Followed Columbus Across the Western Ocean.

The discovery by Columbus in 1492 at once inspired the greatest rivalry between the leading nations of Europe, — France, Spain, Portugal, and England. The new rivalry developed in their peoples a sense of nationality that was itself new, for in earlier times in Europe the kings and lords and the few free citizens of the cities alone were important, and they looked upon the people as their soldiers and laborers. And the people were too busy, too ignorant, too oppressed, to think what they themselves were. For them, as citizens of nations, a new age was about to come! Each of these nations, except Portugal, was chiefly dependent upon Venice, and her great rival, Genoa, for sea-captains.

At that time when the sailors were both superstitious and undisciplined, only the Venetian and Genoese captains could control the mutinous and piratical crews. It was an age when peaceful trade was unusual, when the Mediterranean and Black Seas swarmed with pirates, and in the hills and valleys of Europe and Asia brigands seemed almost as common as farmers, when indeed many traders were themselves pirates, and many farmers were brigands. Such cities as Venice, Florence, and Genoa, with their honest merchants, bankers, seamen, were lights in the dark world. To the people of Northern Italy we owe the preservation of scholarship and of business and property as well as the discovery of both Americas. The discoverers themselves reaped very small rewards from their dangerous voyages in their little boats of one or two hundred tons burden. Henry VII of England gave John Cabot, the Venetian, who discovered North America in 1497, but fifty

dollars and a very small annual pension; but the common people hailed him as "the Great Admiral." In 1500, two Portuguese sailors made important voyages, Cortereal sailing along from Maine to Newfoundland, and Cabral first being driven by a storm to the coast of Brazil, and then turning eastward and going around Africa to India. In 1506, Denys for France found the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

§ 14. The New World was Named after Americus Vespucius.

These voyages fairly determined the future claims in the New World, of England to the coast of North America, of France to the St. Lawrence River, of Portugal to Brazil, and of Spain to all the rest. But Italy, which furnished the sea-captains, had the naming of the "New World."

Americus Vespucius.

Amerigo Vespucci, Italian geographer: traveler. Born, 1451; died, 1512.

For it was Americus Vespucius of Florence, a merchant and geographer, who first thought to call the lands that Columbus, his friend, discovered, "*mondum novum*," the world new. He made several voyages, beginning, perhaps, in 1497, but more likely in 1499. Later a famous map was made by a friend of his, Waldseemüller. This friend was a teacher of a little college at St. Dié in the Vosges Mountains, on the borders of France and Germany. In the map the mainland we now know as

South America was named for the great traveler, and the islands for Columbus. Not until explorers found that North and South America join was the name America given to both continents. It is one of the accidents of history that the New World was not named Columbia, but America in honor of one of the most energetic of Columbus's contemporaries. At that time it was something of a reproach to all explorers that they had found a new world, and not a new way to the "Old World" of Japan, China, and the Indies, with their treasures of gold, marble, silks, teas, spices, and dye-woods.

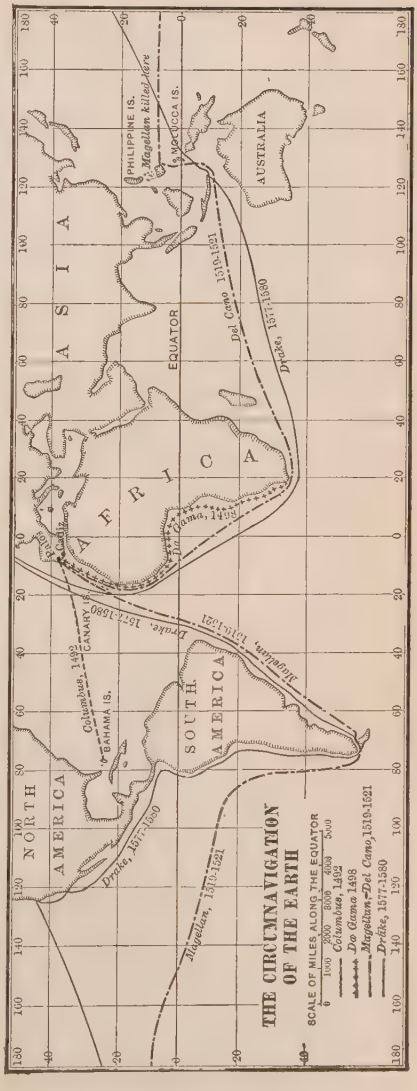
§ 15. De Leon Explored Florida, and Balboa Discovered the Pacific Ocean.

Balboa claiming the Pacific Ocean for Spain and the Church.

In 1513, Ponce de Leon, conqueror and governor of Porto Rico, landed in Florida and explored its interior, searching for a fabled fountain of youth. The same year Vasco Nuñez de Balboa, also a Spaniard, from the summit of a lofty mountain on the Isthmus of Darien saw stretching to the south and west the vast expanse of the Pacific Ocean. Pressing forward with his little band of followers he reached the shores a few days later, and claimed them for Spain and the Christian Church. He named the waters the South Sea.

§ 16. — Magellan and Del Caño Sailed Around the Earth.

But more wonderful than any other achievement of this period of adventure, which saw such an amazing display of intelligence, energy, and courage was that of the Portuguese sailor Magellan in 1519 to 1521. In the service of Spain he sailed along the coast of South America, and passed through the straits that bear his name. After frightful experiences of starvation and mutiny, with but two of the five ships in which he set out he reached the Philippine Islands, where he was killed by the natives. Del Caño, captain of one of his ships, the *Victoria*, with a crew of eighteen men, continued westward and at length reached Lisbon, proving beyond doubt the theory



of the geographers and the faith of Columbus, that the earth is round. The other ship was lost in an attempt to reach Panama. Magellan was as stout a soul as ever sailed a ship upon the seas, and many of his men were worthy of him. He was himself a circumnavigator of the earth, for, in the service of Portugal, he had reached the Molucca Islands in earlier voyages by sailing around Africa and through the Indian Ocean.

Ferdinand Magellan.

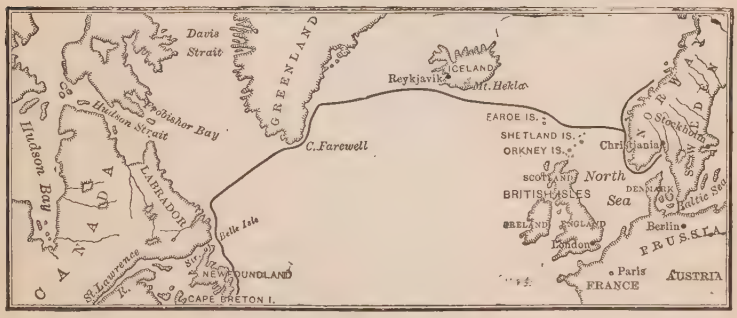
Fernão de Magalhaes. Portuguese Sailor. Born, 1480; died, 1521.

§ 17.—The Norsemen Found the New World Five Hundred Years before Columbus.

The Sagas of Iceland recite the voyages of the Northmen to Greenland and Vinland. Probably about the year 1000 Leif Ericson reached the coast of New England. But the Norsemen left no buildings or monuments to tell of any Europeans living west of Greenland at this time. The seacoast of Europe was then

Gudrida and Thorfin in Vinland.

in a state of great commotion from plundering bands that moved southward and eastward, from Norway into France, Sicily, and England. The Northmen soon became leaders



Route of the Northmen.

in Europe, gaining place and power in Church and State. Six centuries after Leif's visit, the descendants of the Vikings, not, like themselves, pirates and free-booters, but scholars, merchants, and farmers, came to people America.

From the Vikings' discovery of America nothing resulted to make it important to the history of the world, unless possibly Columbus had his views strengthened by knowledge of their traditions. Among Norse tales is that of Thorfin and his bride, Gudrida, to whom was born Snorri, the first white child in America. The tradition recites a visit of Gudrida to the Pope at Rome to tell of the need of missionaries to the natives of Vinland.

§ 18. Fishermen and Fur-traders Followed in the Path of the Adventurous Discoverers.

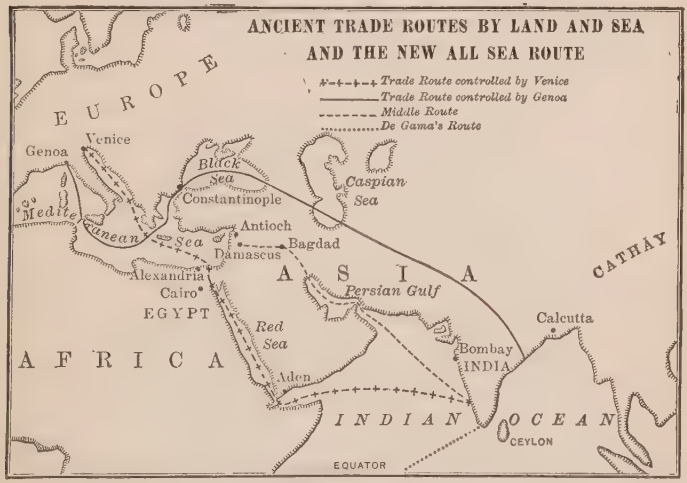
But there were other traditions also afloat, of Catholic priests visiting a western world in ships from Ireland; and, toward the time of the founding of the Portuguese School

of Navigators, there were tales of fishermen from France and Portugal who had made great catches of fish in waters far to the northwest. Certain it is that as early as 1500 the Portuguese sent regular fishing fleets to the Grand Banks off the Newfoundland coast. But who were to believe fishermen's tales before the great lords and merchants and sea-captains dared venture a day's journey out of sight of land? In Portugal was the story of a sea-captain driven by a fortnight's storm to a great new continent, as Cabral actually was in 1500. There were many wonderful tales afloat, and no one knew what to believe and what to discard. Written history records that the fishing fleets followed as close upon the ships of the discoverers as the fur-traders later followed the perilous tracks of the explorers on land. To-day in Provincetown, upon the end of Cape Cod, the people of Portuguese descent outnumber the English.

§ 19. Compass, Gunpowder, Azimuth, and Printing-types Changed Old Times into New.

The great inventions of the fifteenth century had each a vast deal to do with its history, and marvelously changed the aspects of human life. These were gunpowder that made all men equal, since with it a peasant could kill a lord, and also made the conquest of the New World easy; the compass and astrolabe (now developed into the azimuth) that guided sailors upon the seas and made systematic voyaging possible; and the printing-types that spread knowledge through all classes, and into all parts of the world. Gunpowder overthrew the old aristocracies; compass and azimuth opened up all the oceans and continents to trade; and the printing-types made scholarly intelligence common.

All fields of activity felt the immense new forces of the freed spirit of mankind. Agriculture, commerce, manufacture, scholarship, religion, government, education, even warfare, showed new energy in new methods and purposes. The sons of the poor found opportunity in the changed social conditions that followed the breaking-up of the old feudal relations of lords and bondmen. Cities grew rapidly. Serfs bound to the lands of masters fled to the freedom of the cities and of the sea, finding safety and wages. The ocean-barrier became a bridge, and sunset in the west of Europe a beacon-light to liberty in America.



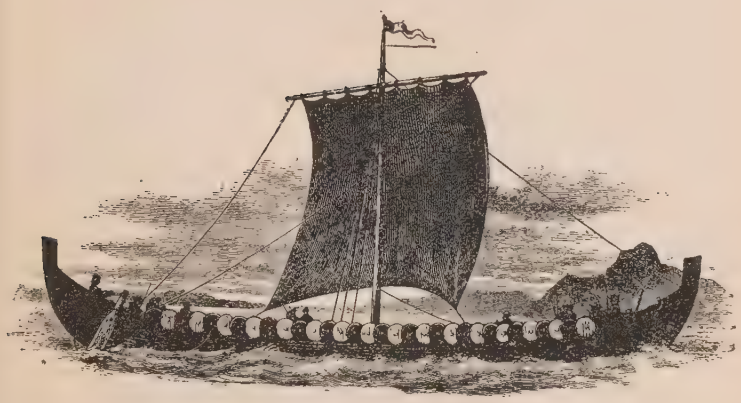
§ 20. A Very Important Motive for These Sea-adventures was the Desire for an All-sea Route to India.

Before the discoveries of the Straits of Magellan, and of the Cape of Good Hope, the treasures of Asia were brought by either of two routes into Europe. They were carried in ships from India by the Indian Ocean and the Persian

Gulf, then in boats up the Tigris River, and across land by caravans of camels to the shores of the Mediterranean Sea; or ships from India went up the Red Sea to a point from which their merchandise was carried overland to Cairo. Every year hundreds of ships sailed from Venice and Genoa, carrying goods manufactured in Europe, and exchanging them in Egypt or Asia Minor for articles of luxury from India. The Turks, a savage people from Central Asia, conquered Western Asia and Eastern Europe, and began to put an end to this Oriental trade, on both sea and land.

§ 21. For Two Centuries after Columbus the World of Merchants Continued to Hope for some Short Passage through America.

Columbus had put to the test the theory held by many men before him that the earth is round. Scholars who lived three and even four thousand years ago believed this. Aristotle, a philosopher of Greece, who lived three centuries before the Christian era, had declared that by sailing westward men would reach Asia. Several men, of the time of Columbus, had drawn maps showing Asia west of Europe. China was placed where California really is. These map-makers did not make the world too small, but they made Asia several times too large. But for this mistake Ferdinand and Isabella would never have undertaken the great enterprise of authorizing and assisting the expedition. When Columbus reached San Salvador and Cuba, he believed that he had reached islands off the coast of Asia. It required two hundred years more to prove finally that America is a vast continent, — in fact, a new world, half as great as the old.



The Vikings Sailed on Every Sea.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. What city was the birthplace of Columbus? In what land is it?
2. Before 1492 what did the common people think of voyages upon the Atlantic Ocean?
3. Whom did Columbus marry in Portugal?
4. What "school" was there in Portugal?
5. Why did Columbus need royal protection for his proposed voyage?
6. What monarchs and merchants finally helped him?
7. What persons formed the crews of the ships of Columbus?
8. What difficulties did he meet on the voyage?
9. How did the Spaniards welcome him upon his return?
10. Did Columbus die rich and honored?
11. What reasons are there to call Columbus one of the greatest heroes of history?
12. What motives inspired his life? What was his object in life?
13. Why did the people of Europe rejoice in the discovery of a "New World"?
14. What changes were made in Europe by the discovery?
15. What were the results of the Turkish invasion of Western Asia?
16. What regions were traveled by Marco Polo in the thirteenth century?
17. What was the effect upon Europe of Marco Polo's book?

18. Who discovered the way from Europe to India by sea?

19. What cities of Italy gave sea-captains for the new voyages upon the Atlantic?

20. Who discovered North America?

21. For whom was the New World named? For what reasons?

22. Who was the first explorer of Florida?

23. Who was the discoverer of the Pacific Ocean?

24. Who were the first sea-captains to sail around the world?

25. What scientific inventions assisted in these discoveries, and in changing the conditions of life in the Old World?

26. What were the ancient trade-routes?

27. How many centuries of effort were required to prove finally that America blocks the western way to India?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

These references are for the teachers, from which to make such extracts as may seem useful and attractive.

Hart's *Contemporaries:* Vol. I., Part II., Chap. III., Northmen, Columbus, Cabot, America: Chap. IV., Cabot, Norumbega.

Hart's *Source Readers:* Vol. I., Thorfin and Gudrida, Columbus, Cabot, Balboa.

Sparks's *Expansion:* Chap. I., Need of a New World.

Old South Leaflets: Nos. 29, 30, 31, 32, 33. Norse and Spanish Voyages.

Irving's *Columbus.*

Thacher's *Columbus.*

Vignaud's *Columbus and Toscanelli.*

Yule's *Marco Polo.*

Channing's *Student's History of U. S.*

Hall's *Viking Tales.*

Fiske's *Discovery of America.*

Winsor's *Narrative and Critical History.*

See also Bibliography in Appendix.

Consult also the standard encyclopædias: Columbus, Vespucius, Cabot, Balboa, Ponce de Leon, Magellan, Northmen, Renaissance, Toscanelli, Behaim, Aristotle, Marco Polo, Saracens, Turks, Moors, etc.

TOPICS FOR INQUIRY OR DISCUSSION BY INDIVIDUALS OR THE CLASS.

For the purposes and uses of these topics, see Appendix.

1. Theories of the Earth's Shape.
2. "Lost Atlantis."
3. The Norse Sagas.
4. The Early Life of Columbus: Columbus in Spain: The Later Voyages of Columbus.
5. The Causes of Opposition to Columbus.
6. San Salvador, meaning "Holy Saviour," and commemorating Cristofero: Guanahani, now Watling Island, in the Bahamas.
7. Vinland and Norumbega.
8. Magellan in the Moluccas: His Death.
9. Bartholomew Diaz and Vasco da Gama.
10. The Wars with the Moors.
11. The Great Inventions: Compass, Astrolabe, Gunpowder, Printing-press.
12. American Poems Celebrating these Great Events.
13. The Mediterranean Sea and its Ancient Trade.
14. The Asian Caravans.
15. The Riches of China and India.
16. Tartars, Saracens, and Turks.
17. Prince Henry of Portugal, "The Navigator."
18. Toscanelli's Map, Waldseemüller's Map, and Behaim's Globe.
19. The Old Rivalry of Genoa and Venice.
20. The New Rivalry of Spain and Portugal.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

The sole purpose of these dates is to assist the learner in keeping the order and sequence of events correctly in mind.

1453. The savage Turks take Constantinople, drive away the scholars, and ruin the trade of the merchants.

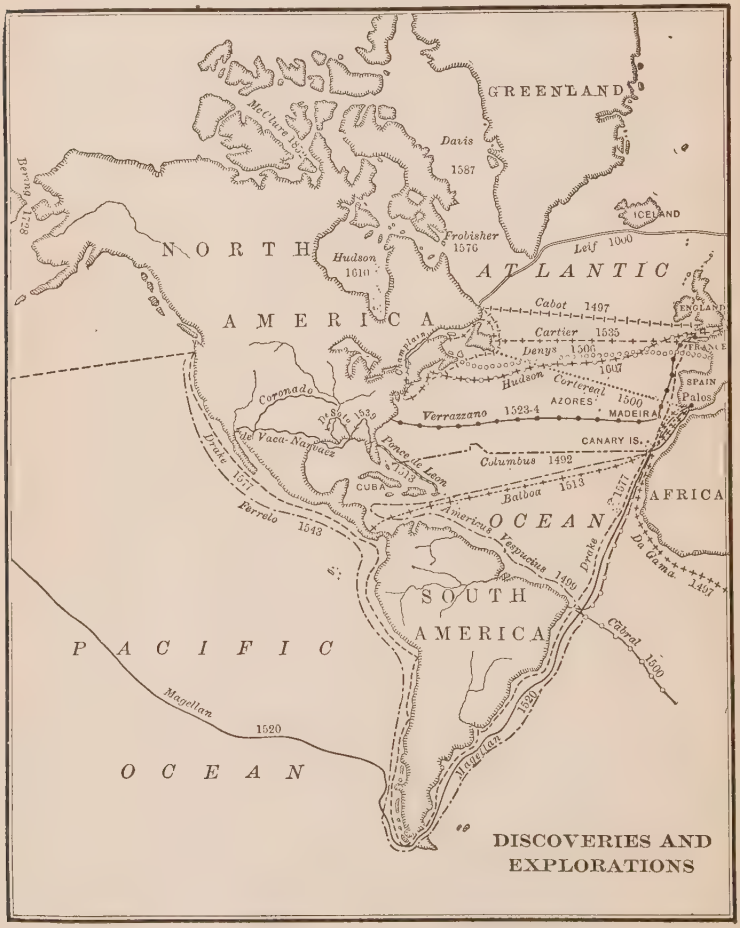
1492. Columbus discovers the islands of the New World, and reports his discoveries to the Spanish monarchs.

1498. Cabot discovers North America.

1513. Balboa discovers the Pacific Ocean.

1520. Magellan completes the proof that the world is round.

From the Discovery of the New World to the Discovery of the Northwest Passage to Asia.



We know actually the courses pursued upon these voyages in but few cases. Most of the captains touched at the Azores. The dates given are central for the voyage when they lasted more than a year.

CHAPTER II.

THE EARLY EXPLORATIONS.

§ 1. Spain Began the Conquest of the New World.

The Spanish Soldiers in the City of Mexico.

All of the great sea-rovers — Columbus, Da Gama, John and Sebastian Cabot, Magellan, and the other adventurers of this early time — were either Italians or Portuguese, for the people of Italy and Portugal were lovers of the sea. The Spaniards were soldiers. For many generations they had been accustomed to warfare against the Mohammedan Moors in Spain until Ferdinand and Isabella drove out the infidels. They were lovers of daring exploits upon the land. When peace came to Spain, her sons could not give up the habit of war. The first Spanish leaders in the New World were De Leon and Balboa; both were soldiers rather than sailors, and both, sword in hand, took to the exploration of the new lands. Their motives were partly religious, partly ambitious. They would destroy heathenism, and take its treasures.

§ 2. Cortes Won Mexico and Vast Treasures.

The early voyagers to the coast of America — Columbus, Vespucius, Cabral, Cortereal, even Balboa and De Leon, not

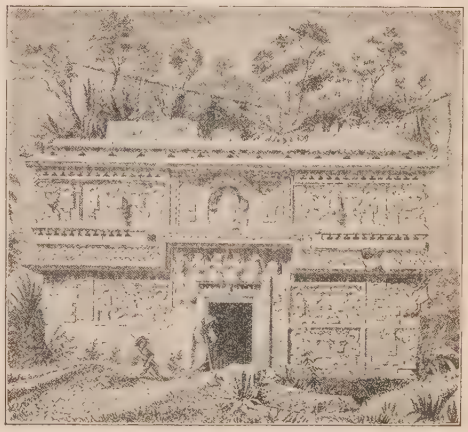
to mention the many others whose astonishing and often cruel adventures are worthy of record in longer histories than this — were content to skirt the coasts of the islands and continents of the New World, with only occasional

Cortes charging the Mexicans.

(The native Aztecs, though skilled in warfare, were almost defenceless against the Spaniards with their horses, cannon, and steel weapons and armor.)

short journeys into the inland country for trade and plunder. With Hernando Cortes of Spain a new period began, in 1519, for then the great nobles began to take vigorous interest in the possibilities of enriching themselves from the treasures of the New World. Cortes, like most of the leaders of this period, had taken part in earlier expeditions, and was a military adventurer by profession. With but six hundred soldiers, he fought his way forward from Vera Cruz through the mountains till he reached Mexico,

the capital city of the Aztecs, and took captive their ruler, Montezuma. In succeeding years he explored the western coast of Mexico. Reports went home to Spain of fabulous wealth and a splendid native civilization in Mexico; and the reports, greatly exaggerating the facts, served to fire the imagination of Spain and of all the rest of Europe with pictures of wonders across the ocean.



Ruined Toltec Temple at Uxmal, Yucatan.

§ 3. Pizarro Won Peru and Untold Wealth.

The story of the conqueror of Peru is, in its cruelty and courage, like that of Cortes in Mexico; for, with a few hundred soldiers, Francisco Pizarro won all the wealth of the Incas, the richest and greatest people in the New World. In Peru marvelous treasures of gold and silver were found in the beautiful temples and palaces.

Everywhere the natives were treated with incredible cruelty. The indolent but amiable West Indians, in personal appearance the most pleasing of all the American aborigines, were almost totally destroyed; and the Mexicans and Peruvians were greatly reduced in numbers.

§ 4. Spain Became Enormously Rich.

By their various public revenues from the new provinces over the sea the monarchs of Spain became the richest, as they were already the greatest, rulers of Europe. They employed in their quicksilver mines, Indian slaves from America, as well as Moors from Granada and Negroes from Africa. The grandees of Spain soon had great private incomes from their foreign properties, so that the discovery of Columbus enriched the Spanish people far beyond his dreams. America gave Spain in two hundred years the value of twenty billions of dollars in gold, silver, and jewels; Indian slaves unnumbered; and an untold wealth of hides, sugar, mahogany, and other merchandise.

Jacques Cartier.

French Sailor. Born, 1494; died, later than 1552. (Exact date unknown.)

§ 5. France Undertook Explorations North of the Possessions of Spain.

France, too, began to take a strong interest in the new continents, sending Verrazzano, a Venetian, in 1524. He discovered New York harbor in the course of his voyage along the coast from North Carolina to Connecticut. Cartier came in 1534, and in 1535 explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the surrounding country. The French were not destined to find such vast wealth as that which so greatly enriched the Spaniards, though the fur-traders soon followed the

explorers, and grew rich by bartering all kinds of articles of European manufacture for the beautiful skins of the otter and beaver of Canada.

§ 6. Cabeza de Vaca Crossed from Florida to California.

Of the amazing adventures of men in the middle decades of the sixteenth century, those of Cabeza de Vaca, Hernando de Soto, and Vasquez de Coronado were largely within the present territory of the United States. In 1535, Narvaez led an expedition from Florida, which soon was reduced to but four survivors, among whom Cabeza was the most prominent. In spite of the difficulties of river, swamp, forest, desert, and enemies, these four persisted, until, in two years, they had journeyed by water and land all the way from Florida to the Gulf of California.

De Soto's Discovery of the Mississippi.

§ 7. De Soto Crossed the Mississippi River.

In 1539, De Soto led a magnificent expedition of six hundred gallant soldiers, who hoped to find in the region north of the Gulf of Mexico a land of measureless wealth. After several years of wandering, he found the Mississippi River, and then died from fatigue and privations. His few surviving comrades buried him in the bed of the river. De Soto met continual resistance from the Indians, for the native inhabitants of the United States, though less advanced in culture than the Aztecs and the Incas, were far more dangerous to the proud and heartless invaders of their land than they.

§ 8. Coronado Explored the Plains and Prairies.

Coronado set out from Mexico in 1540, and explored Arizona, New Mexico, the valley of the Colorado River, and Kansas, and returned with marvelous tales of the Rocky Mountains and of the great deserts, plains, and prairies. He did not find the magnificent fabled Seven Cities of Cibola, of which the missionary friar, Marcos de Niza, had carried glowing reports to Mexico. Instead he found the pueblos and cliff-villages of the Indians shining white in the brilliant sunlight of an arid land.

§ 9. Ribault from France Founded a Colony in Florida.

In 1562, an effort was made by the French to establish a colony in North America. Ribault, a leader of the Huguenots, who were the Protestants of France, established a little colony in Florida, and went back for more settlers. In 1564, Laudonniere found the site of the colony deserted, and established a new colony a little farther south.

§ 10. The Spaniards Founded St. Augustine in Florida, 1565, and Destroyed the French Colony.

In 1565, the Spaniards set up a rival colony near by. A short time after, when Ribault's fleet, which had recently been sent from France to assist the Huguenot colony, was away from the harbor, the Spaniards attacked and destroyed the colony. A terrible hurricane wrecked Ribault's ships upon the coast; and the Spaniards, under Menendez, killed or captured the survivors. The Huguenots might have resisted the Spaniards successfully, if they had not traded their cannon a few days earlier for one of the ships of Hawkins, the English captain and freebooter, whose adventures in piracy and slave-trading made him at this time the terror of all the seas. The success of the Spaniards led to the permanent establishment in Florida, of St. Augustine, 1565, the oldest city settled by Europeans within the present limits of the United States. If France rather than Spain had succeeded, the entire Atlantic coast might have become French rather than English.

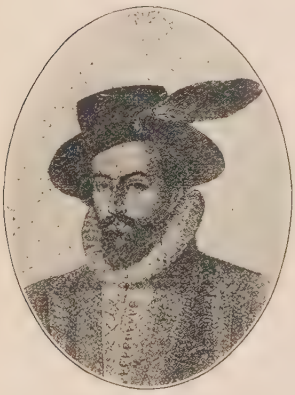
§ 11. Drake Circumnavigated the Earth, and Added Great Territories to the Claims of England.

In 1577 was begun by Drake the second voyage around the world, but the Englishman's purpose was very different

from that of the Portuguese, Magellan, who desired to win new lands for Spain. Drake hoped to despoil the treasure ships bound for Spain from the ports on the Pacific side of South America. He captured several vessels and an enormous amount of silver and gold; but, fearing Spain's war-vessels, he did not dare to return by way of the Straits of Magellan. He went far up the coast of North America, even beyond the point reached by Ferrelo in the employ of Spain in 1542, turned back to a westward course near the latitude of San Francisco, and sailed thence to the Cape of Good Hope, reaching England a great hero and very rich.

§ 12. Raleigh for England Undertook a Great Colony which Completely Failed.

Soon after this exploit, Raleigh began, in 1584, the attempts to colonize North America that ended in his financial ruin. His first expedition brought back the report that the locality visited, the sounds of North Carolina, was a land "the most plentiful of all the world," and inhabited by most agreeable people. For this expedition Queen Elizabeth knighted Raleigh, and called the land Virginia, in honor of herself, the Virgin Queen. In 1585, a colony of over one hundred persons was established, but they spent their time in looking for gold and in quarreling with the



Sir Walter Raleigh.
Born, 1552; died, 1618. Sailor: soldier: author: statesman.

Indians, and but for the visit of Drake next year would have starved to death. He carried them back to England. Meantime Raleigh had sent out other colonists, who found Roanoke Island, the scene of the earlier colony, abandoned. In 1587, another expedition of colonists arrived. Shortly afterwards, Virginia Dare was born, the first child of English parents known to have been born in the New World. But in 1590 came another expedition, only to find the last colony gone. What became of these people no one knows. It is probable that the neighboring Indians killed some of them, but took others prisoners, and later adopted them into their own tribe and clans.

§ 13. The Seamen of England Overthrew the Power of Spain, 1588.

Very likely Raleigh would have been successful in establishing his colony but for events that lie outside of the scenes of American history, though greatly affecting its course; for in 1588, the great seamen of England, Raleigh, Hawkins, and Drake, were busy defending their native land from that "Invincible Armada" of Philip the Second of Spain, whose one hundred and thirty ships carried thirty thousand men for the invasion of England. Neither Queen Elizabeth nor Sir Walter Raleigh had time or money or men to spare for the far distant colony. The terrible defeat and destruction of the Armada suddenly checked the power of Spain and brought new glory to England. From the year 1588 not Spain but England was the great power in the New World, even though in 1580 Portugal and the colonies of Portugal became subject to Spain, remaining dependencies for sixty years.

§ 14. Spain Deserved to Fail.

The conquest of the Moors by the Spaniards made them cruel by long fighting and by familiarity with the horrors of war. The conquest of the Aztecs and Incas made the Spaniards rich without work. They added to their cruelty, indolence and pride. The decline of Spain began with the victories of Cortes and Pizarro, which so vastly extended their dominions and enriched their coffers. The overthrow of their sea-power by England, and the fearful domestic strife over religion, reduced Spain to the position of an inferior nation, and gave supremacy to England and France.

§ 15. Las Casas Devoted His Life to Helping the Indians.

However, no nation can be wholly cruel. Las Casas devoted his life of more than fourscore years and ten to helping the Indians whom his Spanish fellow-countrymen enslaved. He went among them as a missionary in Cuba, San Domingo, Mexico, and Peru. He urged the great Emperor, Charles V. of Germany and Spain, to set them free. He preached among the Spanish people the great principles of human brotherhood. To his faithful record we are indebted for much of our knowledge of Columbus and his immediate successors. Las Casas and many others like him did noble work, founding missions, teaching useful trades, and trying to protect the slaves from the cruelties of their proud masters.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. What reasons may be given why the Italians were sailors and the Spaniards were soldiers in the New World?
2. What region did Cortes win for Spain? What was his own fate?
3. What reports of his adventures went home to Spain?

4. What people did Pizarro overcome and destroy ?

5. What was the effect upon Spain of the New World's wealth ?

6. What were the discoveries of Verrazzano and Cartier ? For what nation were their voyages made ?

7. What was the chief wealth of the Indians of the Gulf of St. Lawrence ?

8. What did Cabeza de Vaca accomplish ?

9. Who discovered the Mississippi River ? What was his fate ?

10. Who first saw the Rocky Mountains and the great plains ?

11. What was the history of the Huguenot colony in Florida ?

12. What city is the oldest in the United States ? Who founded it ?

13. Who made the second voyage around the world ? With what result in wealth and fame ?

14. What was the history of Raleigh's colony ?

15. What prevented the final success of his plans to establish a colony ?

16. When and in what way was the power of Spain overthrown ?

17. What were the causes of the decline of Spain ?

18. Were all the Spaniards cruel ? Whose life was in contrast with that of the soldiers ?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Contemporaries*, Vol. I., Part II., Chap. III. : Gold and Silver. Cortes, Montezuma, Pizarro, De Soto, Coronado, Hawkins, Drake, Roanoke Colony, Raleigh, Verrazzano, Cartier, The Huguenot Colony.

Hart's *Source Reader*, Vol. I. : Gold, De Soto's Death.

Hart's *Source Book:* Coronado, Drake.

Parkman's *Pioneers of France*, Vol. I. : Ribault and Menendez.

E. E. Hale's *Stories of Discovery.*

Thwaites's *Colonies*, Chap. II. (Vol. I., Hart's *Epochs of American History*).

Lummis's *Spanish Explorers:* Coronado.

Higginson's *Explorers:* Verrazzano, Raleigh, Cartier.

Prescott's *Mexico: Peru:* Cortes, Pizarro.

Consult the standard encyclopædias upon these topics : also Spanish Armada, Philip II., Charles V.

TOPICS FOR INQUIRY OR DISCUSSION BY INDIVIDUALS OR THE CLASS.

1. Portugal as a Sea-power.
2. The Aztecs ; Montezuma ; The Incas.

3. Indian Slavery.
4. The French Fur-trade.
5. The voyages of Verrazzano and Cartier.
6. Narvaez and his Expedition.
7. De Soto : his Wife and Family, Earlier Career, Expedition, Death.
8. Coronado, and the "Seven Cities of Cibola."
9. Menendez as a Crusader.
10. The French Huguenots and Admiral Coligny.
11. Hawkins, the Pirate.
12. St. Augustine's Later History.
13. The Voyage of Drake and His Later Adventures.
14. The Misfortunes and Sad Ending of Sir Walter Raleigh.
15. Raleigh's History of the World.
16. The Leaders of the Roanoke Colony : Amidas, Barlowe.
17. Tobacco, Its First Reception in Europe.
18. The Destruction of the Armada and Philip the Second's Despair.
19. The Quicksilver Mines of Spain.
20. The Inquisition in Spain.
21. Las Casas and His Fight against Indian Slavery.
22. England and Her Loss of Territory in France.
23. The Expulsion of the Moriscoes from Spain, and the Consequent Decline of the Industrial Arts.
24. Sir Humphrey Gilbert, Raleigh's Brother.
25. Sir Richard Grenville, Raleigh's Cousin.
26. Hariot, the Inventor of Algebra, and His Adventures in Roanoke Colony.
27. The Spanish in Cuba : in Porto Rico.
28. What Became of the Roanoke Colonists ?

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1492. Columbus discovers San Salvador (Watling's Island).
1506. Denys discovers St. Lawrence Gulf.
1534-5. Cartier explores St. Lawrence River.
1541. De Soto discovers the Mississippi.
1542-3. Cabrillo and Ferrelo explore the California coast.
1565. The Spanish establish St. Augustine.
1577. Drake makes the second voyage around the earth.
1588. The Spanish Armada is destroyed.

CHAPTER III.

THE UNSUCCESSFUL COLONIES.

§ 1. The Spaniards Established No Independent Colonies.

COLONIES are communities of people who have left their native countries to make permanent homes in other lands. Such communities, independent of the aborigines in Florida, Mexico, and South America, were not established by Spain, though Columbus himself, as well as many later discoverers and all the conquerors, left companies of soldiers in the New World to hold the lands for the home country. One of the motives of the Spaniards who came to America was religious, to convert the native inhabitants to the Catholic Christian faith of the Spanish monarchy. Another motive was military, to hold the lands for Spain against all other nations. A third motive was financial, to get gold, silver, and treasures, so as to return and live in splendor at home.

The Spanish did not seek to establish themselves here by agriculture and industry, though the Council of the Indies, by the direction of the terrible Philip the Second, did send over to the New World a few experts to search for such products of the forests and fields and of native industry as were suitable for commerce. This Council, which had absolute power in all American affairs, provided that trading-ships might sail from but two different ports of Spain, and then upon but two days in the year. The revenue ships of the monarch and the nobles could sail at any time. The home government ruled lands and peoples five thousand miles away without any thought of their welfare, and without giving them any voice whatever in their own affairs.

§ 2. The Spaniards Established St. Augustine and Santa Fé in Order to Control Subject Peoples.

The Spaniards settled among the native inhabitants, often killing many of the men and marrying the women. For a century and more their city of Panama was the largest community in all the New World; but most of its inhabitants were American aborigines. Though Spain ruled Mexico, Central America, and nearly all of South America until the beginning of the nineteenth century, only a small proportion of the population has ever been of purely European descent. Even St. Augustine in Florida was scarcely a true colony, but was largely dependent upon the neighboring Indians, through whom it managed to live. It never throve as an independent agricultural and industrial community. Philip the Second, in sending out Menendez to drive the French Huguenots from Port Royal, considered the founding of St. Augustine, 1565, important simply for military and religious reasons. For much the same reasons Onate, a Mexican of Spanish descent, established among the Indians at Santa Fé, 1598, a settlement of Spaniards and Mexicans.

§ 3. The Spaniards Brought from Europe the Domestic Animals.

Many of the Spanish invading armies brought over domestic animals. The bronchos, mustangs, and cayuses of the western plains are descended from runaways. Cattle also ran wild after being brought over the sea. De Soto himself, who equipped the finest invading expedition in Spanish-American history, did not forget to bring over the useful pig. These various animals soon made great changes in the mode of life of the Indian aborigines.

§ 4. The Inhospitable Climate Defeated the Efforts of France to Establish Colonies in Canada.

Though from the beginning their aim was true colonization rather than only military occupation and financial return, it required a hundred years of experiment to teach the French how to establish colonies. Early in the sixteenth century several attempts at colonization were made. One of these, led by Baron de Léry, left domestic cattle upon an island in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, whose descendants were found running wild several decades later by the next European visitors. Cartier and Roberval made the greatest of these early colonizing efforts in Canada, but the colonists found the climate too severe and their resources too slight for success. Those whom disease, hardship, starvation, and their own quarrels spared were not many, and in every case all the colonists were eager to go back to France. From 1543 to 1588 there were no French colonists in Canada.

§ 5. War Destroyed One Colony, and Prevented the Attempt to Found Others.

Ribault's colony in Florida failed partly because the colonists were not interested in agriculture, and were reduced in numbers, health, and spirits by hardships, privations, and the climate, but chiefly because they were not strong enough to resist the great Spanish crusade against them. After this time, not for a score of years could France spare any men for New World adventure. It was a time of foreign wars and bitter civil strife over questions of religion and politics. In 1588 De la Roche made an unsuccessful effort to establish a Canadian colony.

§ 6. In 1600 Spain and Portugal Possessed the New World.

In the latter years of the sixteenth century, England, in the persons of the half-brothers, Gilbert and Raleigh, had begun the effort to establish colonies. But the year 1600 saw only Spain and Portugal in actual possession of any part of the New World.

§ 7. The Fisheries and the Fur-trade Prospered.

The Spanish unwillingness to attempt independent colonization, and the incapacity of the French and English to establish successful colonies, were in noteworthy contrast to the great success of the fur-traders and the fishermen. In the sixteenth century the Atlantic coast of North America was known in the western ports of Europe as the "Land of Cod." Wars might rage, but the people must have fish for Lent and for holidays. Hundreds of little boats went annually upon the long and dangerous voyage across the Atlantic. Some of the fishermen turned traders, though they were afraid to venture inland, getting of the Indians at the ocean's edge the skins of bison, beaver, and seal. The fishermen were exceedingly afraid of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, imagining that demons, griffins, and various other monsters lived in its waters or upon its islands and shores. The Indians brought their furs often great distances down the Great Lakes and St. Lawrence River, or across the lands by way of the Mohawk valley, or even across the passes of the Appalachian Mountains of the Potomac region.

§ 8. Port Royal was the First Successful French Colony.

The period of unsuccessful colonization may fairly be said to have found its end in the settlement of Port Royal

(Annapolis), Nova Scotia, by Champlain in 1604, though this colony did not have a permanent population until 1610, when the first of the Jesuit missionaries came from France to the New World.

§ 9. Buccaneers, Pirates, and Privateers Swarmed Upon the Seas.

The seventeenth century saw upon the high seas and the coasts of the New World, especially in the regions visited by Columbus, terrible exploits of buccaneers descending by thousands upon the coast cities, and of pirates year after year plundering alike the public revenue galleons of the Spanish monarch and the trading caravels of the private merchant. It saw also the beginning, by Sir John Hawkins, of the slave trade, in which business he was opposed by Spain. In 1568, he was defeated at Vera Cruz in a great fight in the harbor, and escaped to the open sea with difficulty. Yet the trade prospered, and those who grew rich by it were highly honored. Red men were kidnapped in America, and black men in Africa. The seventeenth century saw what to us seems the singular spectacle of kings authorizing privateering against the trading-ships of nations with whom they were at peace. The plundering of Spanish vessels making for the home-country across the waters of the Spanish Main, and descents upon Spanish sea-coast towns in the Old World and in the New, were called by Englishmen, "singeing the beard of the King of Spain." After the great calamity to Spain of the destruction of the Spanish Armada in 1588 by Hawkins, Raleigh, Drake, and their compeers, buccaneering and piracy grew worse. For the next two centuries might alone made

right upon the high seas. Our own nation, after it had won its independence, destroyed piracy, and set free the trade of America and Europe from this blood-red toll.

Defeat of Hawkins by the Spaniards at Vera Cruz, 1568.

§ 10. The First Adventurers in the New World were Men of Surpassing Courage.

The adventurous souls who won the New World to European civilization were, some of them, gentlemen of the nobility, others scholars, others mere hirelings in the pay of commercial companies, and still others thieves, cut-

throats, and scoundrels from the prisons of Spain, France, and England; but their courage and fortitude may be judged from the fact that they often crossed the Atlantic in boats so small that they could lean over the sides and wash their hands in the water of the ocean. In boats of but twenty tons, and even less, they brought over horses and cattle. The greatest ship in the fleet of Menendez was of but seven hundred tons' burden. We hear of no other ship of equal size that crossed the Atlantic in two centuries of sea-adventure. Drake had but fifty-seven sailors in his ship that sailed through all the "Seven Seas." The Spanish grandee and priest, the English scholar and sailor, the Italian geographer, the Portuguese navigator, the pirate Moor, and the French soldier, who crossed the seas in those days, all held life cheap and ambition dear. They were brave in every peril, and faced starvation, storm, labor, disease, and battle with unflinching courage.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. What motives led the Spaniards to come to America?
2. What order regarding trade was issued by the Council of the Indies?
3. What was the character of the population of Panama?
4. For what reasons were St. Augustine and Santa Fé founded?
5. What people brought over to America the domestic animals?
6. What causes prevented the success of the early French colonies?
7. How was the French colonization affected by the European wars?
8. In 1600 what nations were in actual possession of New World lands?
9. What were the fortunes of the fishermen and fur-traders?
10. By what routes did the Indians travel to deliver their furs?
11. What and where was the first successful French colony?
12. Were the high seas safe for peaceful merchants during these times?

13. What exploits were called "singeing the beard of the King of Spain"?

14. How large were the ships that crossed the ocean in the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries?

15. What was the character of the adventurers?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Brady's *Colonial Fights and Fighters*, Part II. : The Buccaneers.
Thwaites's *Colonies*, Chap. II., §§ 11–13 : The French Colonies.
Fiske's *History of U. S.*, Chap. V., §§ 30–31 : Drake and Hawkins.
Hart's *Contemporaries*, Vol. I., Barlowe, Raleigh, French Colonies, Fall of Spain.
Hart's *Source Readers*, Vol. I., Nos. 13, 14, 15, 16, 17. Piracy.
Old South Leaflets, Nos. 89, 122 : Colonization.
Channing's *Student's History*, pp. 40–52 : France and Spain : Raleigh.
Fiske's *Discovery of America.*
See also references at ends of Chapters I. and II.

ADDITIONAL TOPICS.

1. The Beginnings of Negro Slavery.
2. The Council of the Indies.
3. Philip II and Charles V.
4. The French Fur-trade.
5. The Port Royal, Nova Scotia, Colony.
6. Sir John Hawkins and His Coat-of-arms.
7. Sir Henry Morgan, Buccaneer.
8. The Spanish Grandee and His American Estates.
9. The Sixteenth and Seventeenth Century Ships.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1492. Columbus discovers America.
1497. Cabot discovers North America.
1565. The Spanish settle in St. Augustine among the Indians.
1585. The English attempt to establish a colony on Roanoke Island.
1588. The English navy overthrows the Spanish Armada.
1598. The Spanish settle in Santa Fé.
1604. The French establish Port Royal (Annapolis).

CHAPTER IV.

LATER VOYAGES AND EXPLORATIONS.

§ 1. Gosnold Tried to Establish Colonies, but Failed.

Sir Walter Raleigh had several associates in his persistent attempts to establish a colony in the New World. Among them was his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, who was lost in a storm at sea in 1583. Another was Sir Richard Grenville, who was mortally wounded in a battle with the Spaniards. It was a glorious death, for with six ships he nearly succeeded in overcoming fifty-three ships of the enemy, 1591. A third associate was Bartholomew Gosnold, who in 1602 entered Massachusetts Bay, and explored the islands and inlets of all the region. He planted a small colony on Cuttyhunk Island. Like all the earlier English colonies, this proved a failure. In 1606, Gosnold made another effort, and took colonists out to Virginia. Against his advice they settled at Jamestown for a brief time. He died there in the awful summer of 1607.

Gosnold's voyages were very useful in affording information to guide later voyagers and colonizers. He was the first colonizing navigator to cross the Atlantic by a course almost due west from England, and made the voyage westward in 1602 in but eighteen days, scarcely half the ordinary time by way of the Azores. The successful Jamestown colony was four months in crossing the sea. The older and longer track of Verrazzano, Cartier, Menendez, Raleigh, and Smith is that still followed by many private sailing and steam yachts, by tramp steamers, and by several commercial lines to the Mediterranean and to Africa.

§ 2. Hudson Explored the Hudson River, and Perished in Hudson Bay.

Another Englishman whose name is memorable as a sea-captain and discoverer was Henry Hudson, who made voyages for the English in 1607 to the waters of the North Atlantic near Labrador, and in 1608 to Nova Zembla. Then the Dutch East India Company, in rivalry with the Plymouth Company of England, organized a branch known as the Dutch West India Company, and employed Hudson, who in 1609 explored the beautiful river that bears his name. A year later he discovered Hudson Strait and the great Hudson Bay where he passed the winter. The terrible hardships of the voyage caused his crew to mutiny, and he was set adrift in a small sailboat with his son John, and a few of the weakest old sailors. They were never heard of again; and the immense and awful bay that he discovered, is his grave, bearing his name as a perpetual memorial to a brave and useful life.

Henry Hudson.

English Sailor. Exact Dates of Birth and Death Unknown.

§ 3. Great Commercial Companies were Organized.

It was Peter Minuit, a German sailor employed in New World adventure by the Dutch, who named the Hudson River the North River, the tidal stream between Manhattan and Long Islands the East River, and the Delaware River

The Half Moon, Hudson's Ship, in the Hudson River.

the South River. With him as leader the Dutch Company hoped to develop all this region. But Minuit saw in the statesmanship of Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden better opportunities, and changed to the employment of the Swedish West India Company. The ties of nationality were weak. The New World offered its lures of wealth and strange adventure; and trading and fishing companies bent upon money-making found sea-captains ready to accept employment under any flag. In the seventeenth century English and Dutch sailors had taken the place of the great Italian and Portuguese sailors of earlier times. Some companies became enormously rich and powerful; notably the English East India Company, the Dutch East India Company, and Hudson's Bay Company. In some respects they resembled the great business corporations of our own times.

§ 4. John Smith Explored Virginia, and Made a Map of New England.

To this same period belongs John Smith, one of the greatest men in our early colonial history. He had been a bold adventurer from his boyhood, fighting in France and Hungary, taken captive in Turkey, and traveling through the Eastern Mediterranean countries. He came to Virginia in 1607 with Gosnold. Smith was the foremost man at Jamestown, and explored the rivers of Virginia and the whole of Chesapeake Bay. In 1614, with two ships fitted out by London merchants, he explored the American coast, and gave to New England the name it still bears.

John Smith, born 1559; died 1631. Soldier in Russia; Governor, Virginia.

Smith was one of the best early map-makers. He was also an enthusiastic pamphlet-writer, and in later years in England did much to promote colonization by his brilliant accounts of the conditions of life in the New World. In 1616 King James gave him the title of "Admiral of New England." But for an unfortunate injury to his eyes, while exploring in America, John Smith would have done far more for the new England over the seas.

§ 5. The Northwest Passage was Discovered in 1852.

Among the many adventurers of this same period who were seeking "the northwest passage to Asia," were Richard Chancellor, who in 1554 sailing eastward found the White Sea, north of Russia, and John Davis, who discovered Davis Strait in 1585. Two hundred and sixty-five years were to elapse after Davis's time, and three hundred and fifty-eight after that of Columbus, 1492, before the useless sea-route to China by the north was understood. Robert McClure completed in 1850–2 the knowledge of the northwest passage, and received the great reward of the British Parliament for his accomplishment, twenty-five thousand dollars.

Meantime in 1728 a Danish explorer, Vitus Bering, in the employ of Russia, had found the sea-channel that separates the New World from Asia. Bering, like Hudson and that great explorer, Sir John Franklin, whose Arctic voyages in the first half of the nineteenth century were the astonishment of the world, died in the far North, a martyr to man's zeal to know the earth on which we live.

Thus Columbus, the Cabots, Magellan, Verrazzano, Drake, Hudson, Bering, McClure, and many other heroes of the sea, the famous and the forgotten, revealed to mankind the oceans and the coasts of the New World, encircling it by their links of discovery until the chain of knowledge was complete. Discovery and exploration are still going on. Very recently we have learned much regarding the Antarctic Sea. Now we know something about nearly every part of the earth upon which we live, including forested highlands of Central Africa, the secluded plateaus of Central Asia, and the frigid regions about the North and South Poles.

The exploration of the land in the New World was a vastly greater task than voyaging upon unknown waters to dangerous coasts, for to the rigors of climate, — heat and cold, fierce storm and sweltering calm, — to hunger and to solitude, were added perils of wild men and wild beasts, and of mountains, forests, and swamps.

§ 6. The French Explored the Great Lakes and the Mississippi River.

After the Spaniards under De Leon and De Soto, the next great land explorers in North America were the French-

Champlain Fighting the Iroquois.

men, Champlain, Joliet, and Marquette. Champlain explored Canada, fighting the Iroquois in 1609, and discovering Lake Champlain in 1610. Lewis Joliet was a native-

born Canadian of French descent, who in 1673 went down the Mississippi River by canoe as far as the mouth of the Arkansas River, and who proved by his voyage that the river empties into the Gulf of Mexico and not into the Pacific. This exploration completed De Soto's discovery of more than a hundred years before, 1541. With Joliet went Jacques Marquette, known as Père Marquette, a Jesuit priest from France, who on his return established Kaskaskia, for a long time the most important town in the Mississippi valley. Marquette and Joliet also explored the six Great Lakes that are so important and so beautiful a feature of the surface of North America. No other continent has inland fresh-water seas of such extent.

§ 7. La Salle for France Endeavored to Establish a Colony, but Failed.

Robert Cavelier de la Salle.

Born, 1643; died, 1687. Explorer: trader: colonizer.

The French gave to America another great land-explorer, La Salle, who was a Jesuit priest like Marquette and many other brave adventurers in New France. La Salle explored the Lake region and made the first voyage down the Mississippi to its mouth in 1682, the same year in which Pennsylvania was founded. In 1684 La Salle brought from France a company of settlers, and tried to found a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi. Failing to find the mouth of the river,

he lost the confidence of his companions, who murdered him in Texas while trying to reach the river overland. These explorations by La Salle in the interest of the fur-trade supported the claims of France to the region first visited by De Soto.

§ 8. The Great Plains and the Rocky Mountains were Explored.

The first explorers to reach the Rocky Mountains in the north were the La Verendryes, father and sons, Frenchmen, who explored the Lake of the Woods, 1732, and Lake Winnipeg, 1733, and in 1742 by way of the Upper Missouri pushed westward to the mountains. Not until the United States was a nation did explorers visit the region again, when Lewis and Clark, sent out by Congress at President Jefferson's desire, journeyed from the Mississippi to the mouth of the Oregon upon the Pacific coast, 1803–6.

A hundred years after the expeditions of the La Verendryes, an American, John C. Fremont, in 1842–6 explored the interior region of the Rocky Mountains and California, fairly completing our knowledge of the inland part of the New World which is now the Continental United States.

§ 9. England and France Increased Their Influence in the New World.

It is interesting to note that the seafaring peoples of Italy and Portugal first, and then of England, contributed to the world most of the great sea-discoverers, Da Gama, Columbus, the Cabots, Cabral, Vespucius, Cortereal, Magellan, Verrazzano, Raleigh, Smith, Davis, Hudson, and McClure, while the military peoples of Spain first, and then France, contributed the great land-explorers, Balboa, De

Soto, Cortes, Pizarro, Cartier, Coronado, Champlain, Joliet, Marquette, La Salle, La Verendrye.

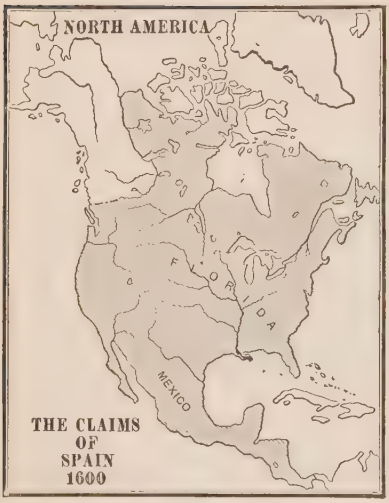
We shall see, as we study the political history of North America, how vitally these discoveries affected the future course of events.

§ 10. Pope Alexander VI Divided America between Portugal and Spain.

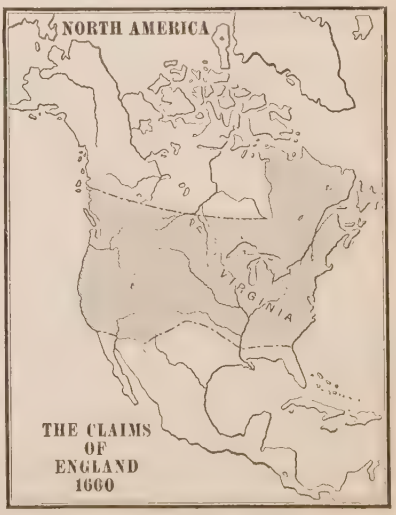
In 1493, after the discoveries by Da Gama and Columbus, Pope Alexander VI divided the New World between Spain and Portugal by a line drawn north and south one hundred leagues west of the Azores. Later the line was changed so that Portugal was to possess Brazil and all the world east of the new line three hundred and seventy leagues west of the Azores, and Spain all the world west except Brazil. It was the political and commercial rivalry between Spain and Portugal that led to Magellan's voyage around the earth, for, disappointed by the small rewards for his great services in the Moluccas, he had given up his native country of Portugal and had gone into the service of Spain. He persuaded the Spanish king that the Moluccas could be reached by going westward as well as by going eastward.

§ 11. The Claims of European Nations Conflicted.

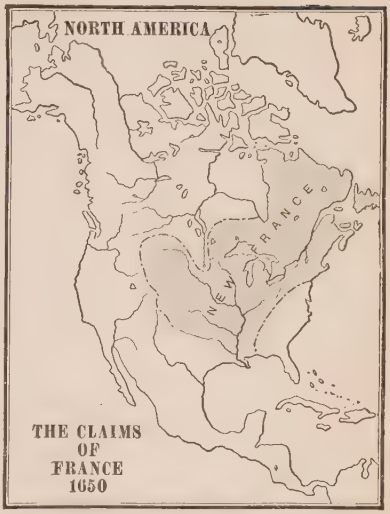
This partition of the New World between the two nations of the Spanish Peninsula was never satisfactory to France, England, or Holland. The Spanish claimed under the title of Florida, which had been explored by De Leon, De Soto, and Coronado, all the continent of North America except the sea-coast of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. When



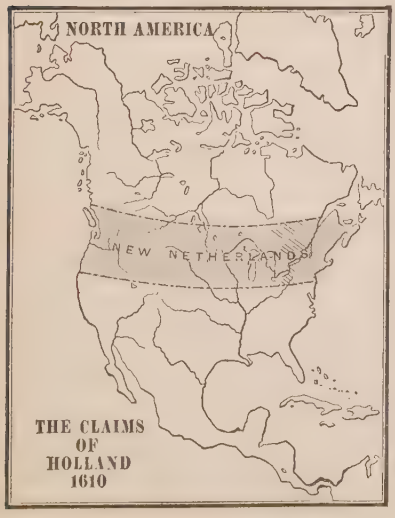
Coligny, Admiral of France, an official like our American Secretary of the Navy, sent out the Huguenot colonies to Florida, Menendez of Spain considered the presence of the French an invasion of Spanish territory. Portugal claimed Brazil and the Gulf of St. Lawrence because of the voyages of Cabral and Cortereal. France claimed the Atlantic coast and the St. Lawrence valley by right of the discoveries and explorations of Verrazzano, Cartier, Champlain, Joliet, and La Salle. England challenged the claims of both Spain and France by virtue of the discoveries of the Cabots and the expeditions of Raleigh. At the end of the sixteenth century the region of the present United States was known by the Spanish as Florida, and by the English as Virginia, and early



in the seventeenth century by the French as New France. Queen Elizabeth declared in her brilliant way that only occupation of the New World by actual colonies could make the Spanish claims valid. At this time Holland was preparing to dispute the claims of all the other nations, and to secure possession of the Hudson valley for two generations.



§ 12. The Present Possessions of England.



In the four hundred years since the time of Columbus, seven European nations have claimed territories in the New World, — Spain, England, Portugal, France, Holland, Sweden, and Russia. In 1900 England only had any territory in North America, and England, France, and Holland together had only Guiana in South America. Great wars

have been fought in Europe as well as in America to decide what nation was to be supreme here. The final result of all the disputes and conflicts was to establish here a nation with English speech, laws, customs, and institutions. The history of settlement in the New World was the history of the expansion of the Old, with England finally dominant north of the Rio Grande River and Spain south until a century ago. In 1822 Spain lost Mexico, the last of her possessions upon the continents of America, and in 1898 Cuba and Porto Rico. In 1783 England lost the United States, retaining Canada until now.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. What was the success of Gosnold's attempts to establish colonies?
2. For what reasons were his voyages useful?
3. What were the achievements of Hudson upon the sea?
4. Give an account of John Smith as an explorer.
5. Who finally discovered the "Northwest Passage"?
6. What were the discoveries of Bering and Franklin?
7. Give accounts of Champlain, Joliet, and Marquette.
8. Who made the first voyage down the Mississippi River?
9. What Frenchmen explored the Rocky Mountains? Americans?
10. Name the sea-faring peoples of Europe, and tell who their adventurers were. Name the military peoples, and who their adventurers were.
11. Between what nations did Pope Alexander VI divide the world?
12. What was the reason for the voyage of Magellan?
13. Explain the conflicts of the claims of European nations.
14. What nations have claimed territories in the New World?
15. What European nations now have New World possessions?
16. Explain the saying, "The history of colonization in America is the history of the expansion of Europe."

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Woods's *Captain John Smith.*

Consult the standard encyclopædias: note especially, Dutch West India Company, English East India Company.

Parkman's *La Salle: Pioneers*, Chaps. IV. and IX. : Champlain.
Hart's *Contemporaries*, Vol. I., Chap. V. : Marquette, La Salle.
Thwaites's *Colonies*, Chaps. II., III. : Voyagers, Discoverers.
Hart's *Source Book*, No. 6 : Champlain.
Bancroft's *History of the United States*, Vol. I.

TOPICS FOR INQUIRY OR DISCUSSION BY INDIVIDUALS OR BY THE CLASS.

1. The Various Routes of Columbus, Verrazzano, Cabot, Champlain, Gosnold, across the Atlantic.
2. The Life and the Death of Henry Hudson.
3. The Early Life of John Smith.
4. John Smith as a Pamphleteer and Map-maker, together with his lectures in England regarding New England, especially with reference to his influence among the Puritans.
5. Vitus Bering : David McClure : Sir John Franklin.
6. The Jesuits in America.
7. Père Marquette : Père Hennepin.
8. La Salle : Trader, Explorer, Colonizer.
9. The Expedition of Lewis and Clarke.
10. General John C. Fremont, Explorer.
11. The Exploration of Canada.
12. The Line of Demarcation.
13. The Opinion of Queen Elizabeth regarding New World Possessions.
14. How Spain Lost South and Central America.
15. Modern Ocean-routes.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1602. Gosnold's colony remains two months on Cuttyhunk Island.
1607. Gosnold dies in Virginia.
1607. John Smith goes with a colony to Virginia.
1609. Hudson explores the Hudson River.
1614. John Smith explores the New England coast.
1626. Minuit begins his explorations.
1682. La Salle explores the Mississippi River.
1728. Bering finds the passage between Asia and North America.
1742. Verendrye discovers the Rocky Mountains.
1852. McClure discovers the "Northwest Passage."

CHAPTER V.

THE ENGLISH IN VIRGINIA.

§ 1. Before 1607 Every English Colony was Unsuccessful.

Before the year 1607 the record of colonization in North America was extremely discouraging. St. Augustine in Florida and Santa Fé in New Mexico alone had any considerable number of European settlers. Nor were these colonies self-supporting. A score or more of systematic attempts on the part of England and France to establish colonies had failed. Even Port Royal had no inhabitants in its buildings erected in 1604. Here and there in Canada were a few sheds and tents of fur-traders; here and there on the coast were a few fishermen's huts, for resort in time of storm, or for a little trade with the Indians, of fish or trinkets for furs.

Pocahontas Rescuing Captain Smith.

§ 2. Raleigh Transferred His Rights to Great Land Companies.

Sir Walter Raleigh, who had been Queen Elizabeth's favorite in her lifetime, was confined in the Tower of London by her successor, King James I, and the great energies of the prime mover in English efforts to colonize America were turned, for lack of any other enterprise, to the writing of a history of the

world. Yet to the inspiration of this great sea-captain, statesman, and writer, the world owes the presence of the English race in our land. Raleigh would have succeeded with his Roanoke colonies but for the great Spanish war then raging on the high seas. Europe owes to Raleigh the potato, first brought to Ireland in 1584, by

Making a Home in the New World at Jamestown, Virginia, 1607.

White, governor of Roanoke. Thomas Hariot, of the same colony, one of the inventors of algebra, brought over other new plants also. Tobacco, however, another strange American product, had been introduced into the Old World immediately after the Spanish conquests. At first it was thought to be a wonderful food and a panacea for disease, though the Indians themselves used it rather as a ceremony than as a habit. After the failure of Raleigh's colonies and his own loss of political power, he transferred his grants of land

to great companies in London and Plymouth. The colonization of the New World was too great a financial undertaking for one man, and had bankrupted Raleigh, who had spent $200,000 upon his ventures, an amount greater than $2,000,000 nowadays. The London Company included a hundred men of rank and wealth and many others besides.

§3. The London Company Established Jamestown, and John Smith Became Governor.

The London Company sent out to the region of their patent one hundred and five men, who settled at Jamestown in 1607. The charters of both these companies provided that the colonists in America should have the same rights and privileges as Englishmen in the home country. Successful colonization began in America with the recognition of civil rights and personal liberty. The first year was a very hard one. No private property was permitted, and they ate and were clothed from the common stores. The plan of co-operative ownership of land and goods and of co-operative labor failed. Most of the colonists were lazy and shiftless. They spent no little time in a vain search for gold. But for the presence, tact, and energy of John Smith, who even then, despite his great experience, was but twenty-five years old, the colony would have failed.

Smith was a diplomat as well as a fighter. He coaxed and frightened the Indians into supplying the settlers with food. In a trip up the Chickahominy River, while trying to find the northwest passage to Asia, he was rescued by Pocahontas, the daughter of an Indian chief, Powhatan, from being killed by the natives. She offered further to protect the wonderful white soldier by adopting him into her own tribe as a brother. He could not decline this offer,

but gladly accepted the friendly aid of the great chief of thirty tribes. But with all Smith's efforts for the colonists, half the men died in the first four months. The record of the second year was rather better, partly because Smith was made governor of the colony.

§ 4. Under Dale the Colony Prospered.

In 1609, the year that Hudson discovered the river and Champlain the lake bearing their names, five hundred more colonists were sent out by the London Company. A worse lot of men could hardly have been brought together. The gentlemen among them would not work because they had been brought up in idleness, and the freed convicts were in many cases incorrigibly bad.

They plundered the Indians, and quarreled among themselves. Soon there were but one hundred survivors among them all. Smith was in England, trying to persuade the London Company that the colony must be supplied with all the necessities of life until it was self-supporting. In this he was successful, for the London Company was primarily bent upon making a financial success of the colony as a business enterprise and saw the importance of a successful beginning. In 1611 came Lord Delaware

with supplies and provisions. He left Sir Thomas Dale to govern the colony. Communism was abolished. Dale was a despot, and sent to the galleys the men who would not work. A few pounds of tobacco shipped to England were sold at a very high price, and the colonists found in tobacco their salvation, for it gave them employment and wealth. With this improvement, men began to come over with their wives. To this time only the Spaniards — and but few of them — had ever brought women in their companies from Europe. With their wives and children about them, the English at Jamestown began to feel at home in the New World. The London Company supported them generously. The first ten years of the colony cost $500,000, — a vast sum in those days, when all England had less people than live in London now. This sum was never repaid.

§ 5. Tobacco Made the Fortune of Jamestown.

The new and better class of people caused the community to grow, not only in numbers, but also in wealth. They shipped to England, in 1619, forty thousand pounds of tobacco, in 1640 one and a half million pounds, and in 1670 twelve million pounds, though their income grew by no means as fast as these weights indicate, for owing to the increased supply the price of tobacco steadily fell. At first the settlers dreamed of finding gold, and wasted their lives in their dreaming. Later they turned to work. John Rolfe, who married Pocahontas, was the first leader in tobacco raising and selling. By following Indian methods of tobacco culture he made a fortune while the other settlers made good livings. The tobacco-habit spread with amazing rapidity through the world, and made a great market.

§ 6. The Colonists Lived Peaceably with Their Indian Neighbors.

It is due to John Smith and to Thomas Dale that the voyage of the *Susan Constant* with two little companion boats to Virginia is as important in the history of the American people as was that later voyage of the *Mayflower* to Massachusetts Bay. Without them Jamestown, like all earlier English colonies, would have been a failure. They made the colonists keep peace with the Indians and with each other. It was the success of Jamestown that led the Pilgrims to undertake their settlement here.

§ 7. Democracy and Slavery Began in 1619.

In 1619, so well had the colonists learned habits of thrift and principles of order and good government, that a new charter was granted by the London Company to them, establishing the House of Burgesses. Each of the eleven settlements sent to this House two representatives as members, thus beginning democratic self-government. In that same year Rolfe relates that "a Dutch manne of war came in and sold us 20 negars." There were already white bond-servants in the colony,— redemptioners and indentured apprentices, — who were practically slaves for varying terms of years. Negro slavery and white republicanism began at the same time in Virginia. Indeed, the former was at that time even more common in the world than the latter. Our ancestors were rather better than the other people of their time, but they were by no means as intelligent, generous, and democratic as are Americans of the twentieth century. From Virginia both slavery and democracy spread until, two and a half centuries later, they came to that inevitable and fearful collision, our Civil War.

§ 8. The English King Sent Over Bad Rulers.

In 1624 King James, no believer in popular self-government, broke up the London Company which he called a "seminary of sedition" and annulled its charter, because he considered it too liberal in its policy. He hated the Virginians, partly because he hated their tobacco, for he was the author of the famous "Counterblast Tobacco," which served a useful purpose as a warning against the undoubtedly dangerous results of its excessive use. Fortunately for the colony he died the next year, before all his plans were complete for establishing a tyranny in "the kingdom of Virginia." James was the first of the English Stuarts; their later history as a royal family is one of the most interesting stories in the annals of the mother-country. James's son, Charles I, who came to the throne in 1625, was not more friendly to Virginia than was his father, but he had so much trouble in England with Parliament, that he had very little time to spend in devising plans against liberty in Virginia. In 1629 he sent over as governor Sir John Harvey, who stole money and tried to steal lands.

After six years of Harvey's rule, the people rose up and put him out of office. Because of the constant popular agitation Charles dared not keep him longer in Virginia and sent a former governor, Francis Wyatt, who renewed his previous good reputation. From 1635 to 1642 the House of Burgesses ruled the colony, which continued to increase in numbers and in wealth. Then, in 1642, came over a new governor, William Berkeley, an aristocrat and royalist, who did not believe in popular liberty, but, to use his own language, "thanked God that there were no free schools and printing-presses in Virginia."

§ 9. Virginia Became Aristocratic and Agricultural.

Meantime, tobacco was exhausting the soil of the old settlements, and the planters began to enlarge their plantations so as to have new soil for the weed. The smaller farms were added to the larger. All the navigable river-fronts were taken up. There were no large towns, but the people were thinly scattered over great areas. The great planters needed cheap labor, and to get it secured for their plantations more and more Negro slaves, white bond-servants, and men and women, boys and girls, kidnapped in England. Among the bond-servants there came over from England many ministers and teachers, for in the mother-country at this time such persons were held in low esteem. Only the rectors of rich parishes and the foremost professors of the great universities and schools were honored.

Virginia was already aristocratic in its tone, with a few families exercising most of the power, when in 1649 Charles I was beheaded by the Puritans, and his Cavalier friends began to look outside of England for a land in which they would be happier than under the rule of Oliver Cromwell, the great Puritan general and statesman, who maintained the republican Commonwealth from 1653 to 1658. Thousands of the Cavaliers sold their possessions for what money they could get, and went to Virginia. The colony became more aristocratic in tone than before. The whole region had always been loyal to the king, whose party the colonists favored rather than that of Cromwell and Parliament. The squires from England founded the F. F. V.'s, — the First Families of Virginia, — intermarrying with the members of the old aristocracy, in which the Rolfes, descended from Pocahontas, were the leaders.

§ 10. Berkeley Ruled Tyrannically.

Through nearly all this period Berkeley was the ruler, 1642–52, and 1660–76. For the last sixteen years he filled the House of Burgesses with his friends, and then adjourned it from year to year, without allowing it to make any laws, and made a farce of popular self-government. When the Indians became dangerous, Berkeley refused to send an army against them. Though John Smith himself had protested against it in his time, the Indians had been taught the use of fire-arms. Young Nathaniel Bacon led an expedition of volunteers against the Indians, and defeated them, whereupon Berkeley attacked him. At this crisis Bacon, who represented the people's cause of liberty and just government, suddenly died. Berkeley ruthlessly hanged twenty of the leaders of the volunteers who had proceeded to raise an insurrection against his tyranny and against the social and political abuses of the time. For this inhuman severity Charles II recalled him in disgrace, 1676.

§ 11. Virginia's Planters were Lovers of Liberty.

In this period, according to Berkeley's own report to the king, there were forty thousand people in Virginia, of whom two thousand were colored slaves, and six thousand were white bond-servants. The actual numbers were probably somewhat less. The English navigation laws were illiberal, like those of all nations of the time; they required the colonists to ship their tobacco in English ships, and to take the pay in English goods. This prevented the development of a commercial class in Virginia. The poor, especially the landless poor, had few rights. Yet, despite all its social ills, the colony prospered. From the beginning

there was in Virginia a free-handed hospitality, and the ruling class were vigorous opponents of the encroachments of king and royal governor upon their liberties.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. In 1607 what were the established colonies in our country?
2. What Europeans were there in Canada in 1607?
3. Why were Raleigh's colonies unsuccessful?
4. What did the charter of the London Company provide as to the rights and liberties of colonists?
5. Who was the first successful leader in an English colony? What services did he render?
6. What did Dale do for the Jamestown colony?
7. Was the London Company just and fair in its treatment of the colony? Give an account of its dealings.
8. What agricultural product saved the colony from failure?
9. What were the early relations between the Virginia colonists and the Indians?
10. What was the House of Burgesses?
11. What bond-servants and slaves were there in Virginia?
12. Why did the king annul the charter of the London Company?
13. What manner of governors ruled in Virginia from 1624 to 1676?
14. Why did the Cavaliers of England leave home? Why did they select Virginia as their new home?
15. What was the result of the Indians learning to use fire-arms?
16. Why was the royal governor recalled in 1676, after the rebellion?
17. What were the characteristics of Virginia in 1676? Was it commercial or agricultural? Was it democratic or aristocratic?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Contemporaries*, Vol. I., Part III., Chap. VII.: The Virginia Plantation; Part IV., Chap. IX., pp. 200–252: Virginia; Bacon, Berkeley, etc.

Thwaites's *Colonies*, Chap. IV.: Virginia, pp. 64–80.

Brown's *English Politics in Virginia*; also, *First Republic in America*.

Smith's *Colonies*: Indians; Virginia.

Fiske's *Old Virginia and Her Neighbors*, for Virginia especially.

Green's Short History of the English People: James I, Charles I, etc.
Harper's *Encyclopædia of United States History:* Plymouth Company.
Consult the standard encyclopædias: Gosnold, Smith, Dale, London Company, Hudson, Powhatan, Tobacco, Pocahontas, Slavery, Berkeley, House of Burgesses, Oliver Cromwell.

ADDITIONAL TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION BY INDIVIDUALS OR THE CLASS.

1. French Colonies in Canada.
2. Sir Humphrey Gilbert, Half-brother of Sir Walter Raleigh.
3. The England of Queen Elizabeth.
4. The Money-making Purposes of the London Company.
5. The Powhatan Confederacy.
6. Tobacco in Europe, and its Steady and Continuous Fall in Price.
7. The F. F. V.'s of Virginia.
8. Bond-servants.
9. The Strange Character of King James I.
10. Virginia Plantations.
11. Oliver Cromwell and the Puritan Commonwealth in their Influence upon Cavalier Emigration from England.
12. The Career of Pocahontas in England.
13. Charles I and Charles II.
14. Navigation Acts.
15. The House of Burgesses in Virginia as a School of Liberty.
16. The Changes from Communism to Severalty in Virginia, and from Democracy to Aristocracy: Causes, Results.
17. How Chief-justice Popham, who Wickedly Condemned Raleigh to Death, became Chief Beneficiary of his Virginia Patents.
18. The Sons of Gilbert in the Plymouth Company.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1606. Gosnold's colony in Virginia fails.
1607–10. Smith makes a success of the London Company's colony.
1609 and 1611. Large additions are made to the colony.
1619. Tobacco becomes a large crop, and Negroes are imported as slaves.
1624. The London Company is broken up.
1676. Governor Berkeley is recalled in disgrace.

CHAPTER VI.

THE ENGLISH IN NEW ENGLAND.

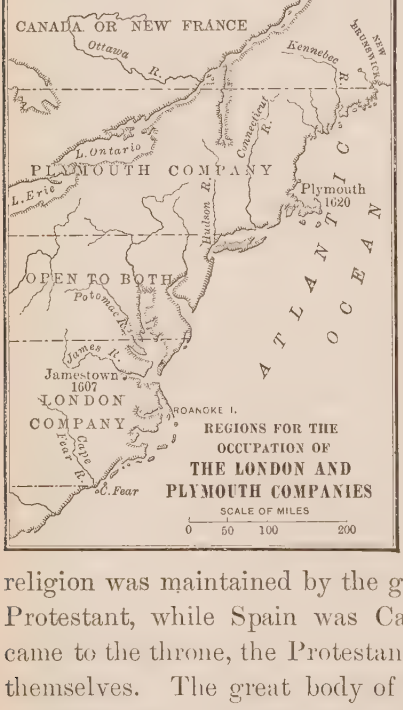
§ 1. Plymouth Colony Secured a Patent from the London Company.

Plymouth Colony differed in many respects from the colony at Jamestown. The people who first settled in New England came over not to find gold, but to secure religious and political liberty. They received no great additions in colonists sent out by the managing Company, which being poor itself was able to contribute in all to the support of the colony but $35,000. This Company was indeed not the Plymouth Company, which had secured a patent to the northern part of Raleigh's lands, but a group of friends of the colonists, who had no charter, but secured for them a patent from the London Company to settle in Virginia. They suffered even more than the first settlers at Jamestown, for the New England climate was far harder to endure than that of Virginia. Lastly, there were no jail-birds and no fine gentlemen in Plymouth; the colonists were all poor and all good citizens.

§ 2. The Plymouth Company Founded No Successful Colony.

The Plymouth Company undertook the colonization of the northern section of Virginia. In 1607, a year after John Smith's first voyage to Jamestown, and the very year of the establishment of the colony there, it sent out a company which landed in Maine but refused to stay there, returning to England within a year. Even the colony that bore its name was not sent out by it, but received

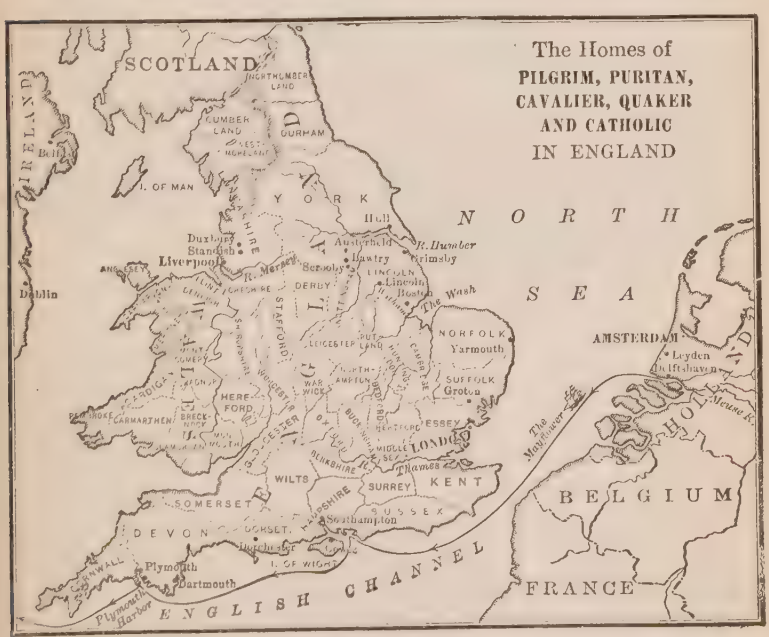
a grant from the London Company. The later Massachusetts Bay colony was established by a company, independent of the Plymouth Company, which was dissolved by Parliament in 1635, for it was so successful in the fisheries as to invite great enmity.



§ 3. Strife in England Caused a Pilgrimage.

For a hundred years before King James came to the throne, 1603, there had been growing in England a party dissatisfied with conditions in the Established Church. In the time of "Good Queen Bess" and the Spanish Armada, questions of religion were also questions of patriotism. The monarch was head of both Church and State, and religion was maintained by the government. England was Protestant, while Spain was Catholic. But when James came to the throne, the Protestants began to disagree among themselves. The great body of the people felt well satisfied with things as they were, but there was one considerable party that favored change. The discontented people who wished to purify religious affairs were called Puritans. Three decades later in Cromwell's time they accomplished their purpose, and set up a Puritan Republic. Among the

Puritans in 1608 a few were called Separatists because they were so discontented with the state-church that they were willing to leave it and to establish separate meetings from those of the parish-churches. Their leader was a clergyman by the name of Brown. But to leave the state-church was against the law of the land, and Brown and his followers were finally arrested by the officers of the king, and their meetings were broken up. After much trouble one congrega-



tion, at Scrooby, fled to Leyden, Holland, in 1608, seeking with their scholarly pastor, John Robinson, that liberty of worship which the brave Dutch had established in 1581 after a generation of resistance against the bloody Spaniards.

§ 4. The Pilgrims Settled at Plymouth.

In Holland these English Separatist-Puritans, or Independents, were known as Pilgrims; but they were not happy, for they loved English customs and the English tongue, and wished their children to grow up as English men and women. They were very poor. At this time Hudson and Smith were exploring the New World, and these English sojourners in Holland decided to try their fortunes across the sea. They intended to settle in New Jersey, but all could not go, for they could afford but two small boats, the *Speedwell*, which they bought, and the *Mayflower*, which they chartered. The first-named boat was abandoned for unseaworthiness at Plymouth, England.

Model of the Mayflower.

Everything about the *Mayflower* was unattractive except its name, and the voyage was one of great discomfort and many hardships. There were one hundred and one passengers on board. One died during the passage, and one child was born. In the winter of 1620, they reached not New Jersey but Cape Cod, landing first at Provincetown upon the desolate sands of its harbor-shore, and some weeks later going across the bay to Plymouth. One-half

of all the number died the first winter. In that severe climate they began the strange new life at a most unfor-

Landing of the Pilgrims at Plymouth, 1620.

tunate time of the year. They were without comforts, and their women and children lacked even the bare necessities of life. Even the sailors of the *Mayflower*, which was wintering in the harbor, would not help them from the ship's stores. Crossing the sea, they adopted the Mayflower Compact, an agreement to establish personal liberty by self-government, and upon landing began their first town-meeting. Their spirit was unshaken by even their dire poverty in the frightful cold. In the first winter when Governor Carver died, they elected Bradford in his place. He had as his chief supporter in religion and government, Brewster, and in business and defense, Myles Standish; and it speaks well for the spirit of toleration of the Separatist Pilgrims that Standish himself was a Catholic.

§ 5. The Pilgrim Colony Led to the Puritan Immigration.

Soon they made a treaty with Massasoit, chief of the Wampanoags, and their judicious dealings with him gave them not only Indian corn to eat, but a chance to live free from Indian attack. As the Jamestown colony had been helped by Powhatan, so the Plymouth colony was helped by Massasoit and Samoset. The latter was first led to the Pilgrims by Squanto, a Cape Cod Indian, who had been kidnapped in 1614, sold into slavery in Spain, and taught by the Christian friars, and had then escaped back to his native land. Plymouth received some accessions in numbers in the next few years, while its colonists were learning how to gain a living by the culture of that unfruitful soil, but the great influence of the colony was in stimulating the Puritan emigration from England. By order of the governing Company, communism was tried for four years, but failed. The Pilgrims profited by the fur-trade.

Property and Signature of Captain Standish.

§ 6. The Puritans Established Many Settlements.

By the year 1628, Charles I and his bishops had made the Puritans very uncomfortable within the Church of England. Forming a trading company, a body of the Puritans bought from the Plymouth Company a strip of land from the Charles River to the Merrimac. Their first settlement was in Salem. King Charles gave them a liberal charter, for

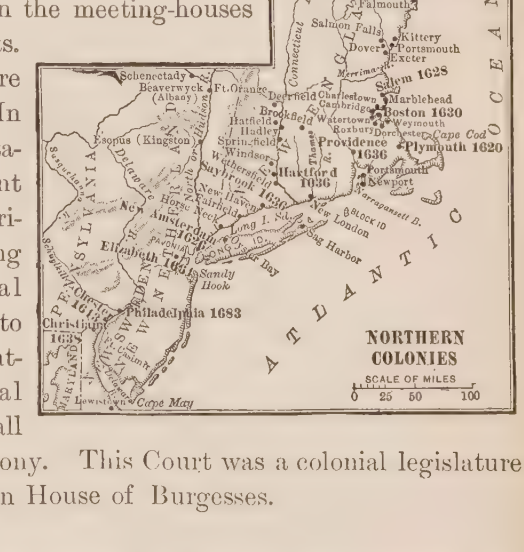
he was glad to see the malcontents depart, and hoped by his generosity to secure at least their good will. In 1630, John Winthrop came over with a thousand colonists, many cattle, and abundant supplies. This was the greatest and most costly colonizing expedition that had yet come to the New World. Before 1640, there were many thousand Puritans in Massachusetts Bay Colony. Boston, whose first settlers came as early as 1623, was established and named in honor of the English home of some of the settlers; and a second center of English civilization was thriving three thousand miles from the mother country. Many smaller settlements soon followed.

Puritans Awaiting Attack by Indians.

§ 7. The Puritans Formed Self-Governing Churches and Towns.

The Puritans soon became Separatists like the Pilgrims at Plymouth, but many of them were of a different social class, for they had been men of wealth and power in England. They were almost as intolerant of dissent from their own religious views, as were the Catholics of Spain and the

Church of England leaders at home. Only church members could vote, so that Puritanism was the state-church in Massachusetts Bay just as the Anglican Church was the established religion in England. Each church congregation was self-governing, and formed a township in politics and a parish in religion. All public business, secular or religious, was transacted in the meeting-houses of the settlements. The ministers were local despots. In 1634, representative government began by the various towns' sending to the General Court, deputies to decide upon matters of general importance to all people in the colony. This Court was a colonial legislature like the Virginian House of Burgesses.



§ 8. Hartford was Settled by Colonists Who Believed in Universal Self-Government.

Meantime, the Dutch had begun their settlement at the mouth of the Hudson River, and had built a fort at Hartford to hold in their control the Connecticut valley. To stay their advance, John Winthrop, a son of Governor Winthrop of Massachusetts Bay, who was a far-sighted statesman, built a fort at Saybrook in 1635, at the mouth

of the Connecticut River. The best land in eastern Massachusetts was now occupied, and the people were beginning to feel crowded upon their farms. Some of them felt also that Puritan religious intolerance in Massachusetts was quite as hard to bear as Anglican intolerance in England. Among these were white bond-servants who had completed their service, but could not vote since they were not church members. Thomas Hooker, a clergyman and the first true democrat in the New World, — for even John Smith believed in kings and aristocrats, — brought a company of one hundred settlers to Hartford in 1636. By 1639, there were enough settlements and people in the neighborhood to warrant the adoption of the Constitution of Connecticut, the most liberal document of its kind up to that time in human history. It assumed the right of complete self-government as inherent in the people, and made no mention of any king.

§ 9. New Haven and Newark were Founded by Puritans.

At this time, 1637, New Haven was founded, basing its laws on the Bible, and allowing only church members to vote. Not long after, in 1666, Newark was founded in New Jersey upon the New Haven principles, its first settlers claiming that Boston morals were too lax for good church people. Always aggressive, the Puritans and the Puritan influences soon spread far beyond the vicinity of Massachusetts Bay.

§ 10. Roger Williams Founded Providence.

Rhode Island was settled from Massachusetts Bay at this time, by Roger Williams, who was a pastor in Salem, and a democratic radical of very liberal religious and political

views. He declared for equal rights for all people, the complete separation of Church and State, so that non-church members could vote, and recognition of the right of the Indians to the soil of the American continents. There was no room for him in Massachusetts. Hooker had voluntarily withdrawn in 1635, but Williams was expelled in 1636. With his followers he established Providence. At this same time, Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, a scholarly woman, interested in religion and very skillful for her times in medicine and surgery, was forced out of Boston and made a settlement at Newport. This famous and good woman was the mother of fifteen children. Despite her kindness to the Indians, she was killed by them in 1642 near New Amsterdam.

Roger Williams and the Indians.

§ 11. Massachusetts Adopted a Declaration of Liberties.

The New World changed men's opinions very rapidly. Freedom and equal opportunity for all citizens became the common faith. In 1641, the General Court of Massachusetts passed the Declaration of the Body of Liberties, one of the most important documents in American history. It is to be considered with the charter of the London Company, the Mayflower Compact, and the Connecticut Constitution, as building those foundations of liberty in our country upon which the Declaration of Independence and

the Constitution of the United States rest. In the Body of Liberties the delegates of the people of Massachusetts published to the world their belief in the people's right to elect all their rulers from governor and judges down to clerks, and to pay them annually what they choose. Government was to be by consent of the governed, and rulers must be servants. Belief in many other rights was affirmed, for these men fully understood the principles of that Great Charter which the scholars and barons of England had won from King John in 1215. Nathaniel Ward, who was both a lawyer and a minister, deserves to be remembered as the man who wrote this long "Declaration of Liberties."

112. Old Ideas Disappeared Slowly, and Freedom was Not Yet the Right of All.

Yet with all their assurances of the rights of men to fair trials and to free ownership of land, and of women not to be whipped by their husbands, — for these are among the many rights in the Body of Liberties, — these people of Massachusetts, in 1641, regarded slavery and bond-service as entirely proper. Even this Declaration proclaims servitude as the just condition of some human beings. Our forefathers came over here with heads full of the ideas and customs of the Old World, but among them were wise men who foresaw better times in the future. The seventeenth century in England was full of trouble; and it shows how hard life was for the poor and the ignorant there, and how unpleasant it was even for the rich and the wise, that so many thousands of all classes of people were ready to leave their English homes, and to endure the terrible hardships of those early days in Virginia and New England.

§ 13. The New England Colonies Formed a Union.

By 1643, so fast had affairs moved in New England, that the Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut and New Haven colonies were ready to form the federation known as the United Colonies of New England, which lasted till 1684, and was the true forerunner of the Albany Convention of 1754 and of the Continental Congress of 1774. This confederation was intended as a military alliance against the Dutch in the West, against the French in the North, and against the Indians, with whom the Pequot War had already been fought — 1637.

§ 14. The Quakers were Persecuted.

In 1656, the Quakers, who called themselves "Friends," began to come over to Massachusetts. The first two who came were at once arrested and put in jail, their very windows being boarded up to prevent them from seeing others and making converts. But more Quakers came, preaching religious independence and mutual toleration and the separation of Church and State. The angry Puritans, though they had themselves separated from the Anglican Church of England, even hanged four Quakers for advocating separation from the Puritan meeting-houses of New England. This made the Quakers heroes and martyrs in the eyes of many people, and especially those not free to vote because they

were not church members. In 1661, immediately after the downfall of the Puritan Republic in England, the Stuarts were restored to the throne in the person of Charles II, son of the Charles I who had died on the scaffold in 1649. Charles II issued an order forbidding the General Court of Massachusetts to inflict any bodily injury whatever upon the Quakers. After that Quakerism prospered.

§ 15. Charles II Added New Haven to Connecticut, and Separated New Hampshire from Massachusetts.

But King Charles II had a royal grievance against the New England colonies for harboring two of the "regicides," or king-killers as he chose to call the sixty-nine members of Parliament who had condemned his father to death, because, like most kings, Charles I meant to rule, with or without the people's consent, and, if need be, by force of arms. These regicides, Goffe and Whalley, in 1662, escaped from England to Massachusetts; the royal order for their arrest was violated, and they were sent to New Haven, where they were safely hidden by Governor Davenport. Thereupon Charles united New Haven to the larger colony, Connecticut. By so doing he punished both Massachusetts and New Haven, for these two colonies were opposed to the democratic principles of Connecticut, and by this measure, Connecticut was made almost as strong as Massachusetts. He even sent out to Connecticut a new charter confirming most of Hooker's ideas as embodied in the Constitution of 1639. Nor did he drop his quarrel with Massachusetts with this move, but separated from it the settlement in New Hampshire, which he made an independent colony in 1679. Meantime his officers tried to enforce in New

England the same navigation laws that so restricted the Virginia trade in tobacco, but perhaps benefited England and Europe, by raising the price and diminishing the sale of the article. The early excesses in the use of tobacco, by men, women, and children, educated and ignorant, form an interesting and instructive chapter in the history of human health.

§ 16. King Charles Annulled the Massachusetts Charter.

All this time there was growing up in New England a party of culture that was much opposed to the Puritan ideas of the necessity and desirability of union of Church and State. This party controlled Connecticut and Rhode Island, and was beginning to be influential in Massachusetts.

As far back as 1636, Harvard College had been established. Free schools soon followed and became general. Little more than reading and writing was taught in them, however, until the Massachusetts General Court, or colonial legislature, required towns to give an education in Latin grammar sufficient to fit students for the college. Such is the origin of the grammar schools in our land. In 1643 the Puritan migration ceased because of the civil war raging in England. In the freer atmosphere of the New World, some of even the Puritans themselves began to grow more liberal. The non-church members came to outnumber the voting population, and there were few zealous Puritan recruits from England to renew the old exclusive and despotic religious spirit. Further, some immigrants to New England found its conditions so intolerable that they went back home, full of tales of Puritan bigotry. To them King Charles lent a ready hearing, with the result that in 1684 he annulled the charter of Massachusetts in

the interests of freedom of worship. Thus ended the Puritan political-religious system; and the religion of the Episcopal Church of England, as well as that of the Quakers, was legally tolerated in New England. This move of King Charles pleased so many of the people, that the Tory party of Loyalists may be said to date from 1684.

§ 17. The English Revolution of 1688 had an Echo in New England.

In the next year, 1685, Charles died, and was succeeded by his brother, James II, a would-be despot, both in England and in New England. James sent out Sir Edmund Andros to govern as viceroy from Maine to New Jersey. The new governor at once built an Episcopal Church in Boston, known even today as King's Chapel, though King James himself was not an Anglican, but a Roman Catholic. Acting under the King's orders, he abolished the General Court, confiscated lands and goods, levied arbitrary taxes, muzzled the press, and made arrests without warrants. In Connecticut, he stopped the operation of its liberal charter, though that precious parchment was itself safely hid in the famous Charter Oak.

The Charter Oak.

In 1688, James was himself dethroned, and fled on the last day of that year to France, whereupon Boston arose in insurrection, and deported Andros to England in 1689. Thus the great "English Revolution of 1688" had its echo in New England.

§ 13. King William III Restored Freedom to New England.

William III was chosen by Parliament for the English throne, partly by right of Mary, his wife, a daughter of James, and partly as the Dutch champion of Protestantism upon the continent of Europe. He gave back to Connecticut and Rhode Island their charter rights, and restored freedom to Massachusetts; but he compelled religious toleration there, and gave to all, irrespective of church membership, the right to vote. He annexed Plymouth to Massachusetts, an act which benefited both colonies. He reserved, however, to the English crown the right to appoint the governor. It was in his reign, in 1692, that the Salem witchcraft delusion raged, illustrating the difficulty of the

Puritans Arresting a Witch.

human mind to acquire freedom from superstitions and cruel, false beliefs. Part of the first witchcraft trials took place in the very house formerly occupied by Roger Williams, that great lover of justice. But its owner, Judge Samuel Sewall, soon became a vigorous opponent of the delusion that witches exist.

The House of Roger Williams, Salem, 1635.

§ 19. New England was Democratic and Commercial.

Thus grew up, widely separated from Virginia, an even larger English population than that colony then possessed. These New Englanders could not raise tobacco, and resorted to manufactures, to fishing, to ship-building, and lumbering, and to such general agriculture and gardening as the sterile soil and cold climate permitted. These occupations naturally resulted in establishing towns of considerable size rather than great plantations after the Virginia fashion. The free schools made the people intelligent, the hard climate made them industrious and thrifty, and their constant religious and political disagreements made them independent and combative. They managed all their local affairs in town-meetings, and by their General Court controlled to their own satisfaction nearly all large colonial

matters. They learned how to govern themselves, practiced foresight and economy, and laid substantial foundations for the Republic that was yet to come. The democracy of Massachusetts was destined to produce in the next century for the Revolution, Samuel Adams, "the man of the town-meeting," as the aristocracy of Virginia was to produce George Washington, leader in war and peace.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. In what general respects did the history of Plymouth differ from that of Jamestown? In what was it similar?

2. In Queen Elizabeth's time how were religion and patriotism related?

3. What parties were there in England in 1620 among the Protestants?

4. Why were the Pilgrims so called?

5. What was the name of the ship in which the Pilgrims made their voyage? What sort of a ship was it?

6. What was the experience of the Pilgrims the first winter?

7. What were the Pilgrims' ideas as to self-government?

8. What was the historical importance of the Pilgrims? Did they become a great colony? Whom did they lead to America?

9. Who was the leader of the Puritans in America?

10. What changes took place in the Puritans' ideas of church-government after they came to America?

11. By what body was the Massachusetts Bay Colony governed?

12. What did the Puritans do to hold back the Dutch from the Connecticut valley?

13. What were the causes of the migration to Connecticut?

14. Who was the leader of the migration?

15. What were the moral ideas of the people who settled in Newark, going from New Haven?

16. Who was Roger Williams? Why did he leave Salem?

17. What persons settled Providence and Newport?

18. What federation was formed in 1643? What were its purposes?

19. Tell something about: The Mayflower Compact, the Connecticut Constitution, the Massachusetts Body of Liberties.

20. Who drew up the last-named document?

21. Was freedom regarded as the natural birthright of all men? What were some of the Old World ideas about human equality?

22. How were the Quakers received in Massachusetts?

23. What did the Quakers advocate?

24. What did Charles II order regarding the Quakers?

25. What did the King do in New England to avenge his father's death?

26. What changes in population led to new views regarding the union of Church and State?

27. In 1684, why did the King annul the charter of Massachusetts?

28. What was the history of Sir Edmund Andros in New England before 1689?

29. How did the "English Revolution" affect him?

30. What did William III do regarding the right to vote in Massachusetts?

31. What unfortunate delusion raged in Salem in 1692?

32. What were the occupations of New England people in the seventeenth century (i.e., before 1701)?

33. What was the character of the people? Compare it with that of the Virginians.

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Contemporaries*, Vol. I., pp. 325–506; The Puritans; Pilgrims in Holland; Plymouth Colony; Bradford; Massachusetts Bay Colony; Mrs. Hutchinson; The Vote; Rhode Island; Roger Williams; Thomas Hooker; New Haven; Connecticut: New England Confederation; Andros; Harvard College; Quakers; Indians.

MacDonald's *Select Charters;* Massachusetts Body of Liberties.

American Historical Review, January, 1903; Plantation Colonies.

Hart's *Source Readers*, Vol. I., pp. 170–224; Colonial Children.

Eggleston's *Beginners of the Nation* and *Transit of Civilization.*

Fiske's *Beginnings of New England.*

Thwaites's *Colonies*, Chaps. VI.–VII.: New England.

Bancroft's *History of U. S.*, Vol. I. Various chapters. See Bibliography in Appendix.

Harper's *Encyclopædia of U. S. History:* Pilgrims; Plymouth; — interesting accounts of homes in England, their straw beds, etc.

Lossing's *Our Country*, Vol. I., Chap. VII.: New England.

Old South Leaflets: Nos. 6, 7, 19, 21, 28, 48, 49, 50, 51, 53, 54, 55, 62, 64, 66, 67, 72, 77, 110, 121.

ADDITIONAL TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION BY INDIVIDUALS OR THE CLASS.

1. Pastor Robinson and the Pilgrims in Holland.
2. The Passage in the *Mayflower;* and the Compact.
3. The First Winter at Plymouth ; Myles Standish's Fort ; the Friendship of the Indians.
4. Governor Winthrop.
5. The Fort at Saybrook.
6. Hooker and the Connecticut Colony.
7. New Haven ; Newark ; and the "Blue Laws."
8. Roger Williams.
9. Anne Hutchinson.
10. Nathaniel Ward, Scholar and Democrat.
11. Slavery in New England.
12. Quakers and Puritans.
13. Edmund Andros, a Good Man, but a Bad Ruler.
14. William III, Leader of Protestantism in Europe.
15. Cotton Mather and the Salem Witchcraft Delusion.
16. The Varied Industries of New England.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1607. Jamestown colony is founded.
1620. Plymouth is colonized.
1626. Salem has its first settlers.
1630. Boston is established.
1635. A fort is built at Saybrook on the Connecticut River.
1635. Hartford is begun.
1636. Thomas Hooker brings to Hartford a congregation.
1636. Roger Williams goes to Providence.
1643. The New England Confederation is organized.
1641. The Massachusetts General Court adopts the Body of Liberties.
1636. Harvard College is begun.
1684. The Massachusetts Charter is annulled, but in 1692 a new Charter is granted.
1688. Andros is sent back to England.

CHAPTER VII.

THE DUTCH AND THE SWEDES.

§ 1. The Dutch Made Friends of the Iroquois.

"It is as beautiful a land as the feet of man ever trod upon," said Henry Hudson, in 1609, of the valley of the Hudson River, up which he sailed as far as the present Troy, the limit of tide-water. On that voyage he made friends of the Iroquois Indians, — a most fortunate circumstance later for the Dutch and the English, since earlier in that same year Champlain had fought these very Iroquois, and made them implacable enemies of the French. Fiercest of all the Indians were the Iroquois, then called the Five Nations, who lived in the Mohawk Valley, and proudest, getting their name from their pride, for the name means the I-have-said-it-people.

§ 2. New Amsterdam was Established.

The Dutch, recently released from their thraldom to Spain, began in the spirit of conciliation, for they meant to secure the fur-trade by winning the good will of the Indians from the English and the French. They soon established trading-posts at Albany and on Manhattan Island. In 1614 they built a few houses on the island, and called the settlement New Amsterdam. They established also in 1614 Fort Orange, now Albany. The Dutch Republic claimed by right of exploration and occupation all the land from Virginia to the Connecticut River, and called the region New Netherlands. Thus was a fourth claim added to those of Spain, France, and England to the

Hudson valley, — a claim prophetic of the future cosmopolitanism of a commercial city where as early as 1641 eighteen languages were spoken. The first considerable immigration was that of a body of several hundred French-speaking Walloons, Protestant refugees from Belgium, who had fled to Holland, then the asylum for the oppressed of Europe, as America has been almost ever since the beginning of its history.

§ 3. The Dutch Traders Acquired the Island of Manhattan.

In 1626 Governor Peter Minuit recognized the Indians' claim to the region by paying them, on behalf of the Dutch

Peter Minuit and the Indians Trading for the Island of Manhattan, 1626.

West India Company, twenty-four dollars in merchandise for Manhattan Island, thus winning renewal of friendship without impoverishing the buyers. Yet if in that same

year he had put the money in the Amsterdam Bank at ten per cent interest (a very low rate for those times) to be compounded till now, the fund to-day would amount to more than the present wealth of the entire island with all its nearly three million inhabitants. New Amsterdam long remained but a small village compared with Boston.

§ 4. The Colony Grew Fast in Wealth and Population.

The Dutch extended their trading-posts to the Delaware River and up the Hudson, but did not begin agricultural operations extensively until 1639. In that year the patroon system of large plantations with many tenants, adopted in 1629, was admitted to be partially unsuccessful, since it did not stimulate the energies of the working people, and was supplemented by grants of small farms to many of the industrious poor. From that time the colony throve, except during 1643–44, the years of Governor Kieft's mismanagement and conflicts with the Indians. He was displaced by Peter Stuyvesant, a one-legged, irascible, honest, and able tyrant, who permitted perfect freedom in religion but none in government. Settlers came in greater and greater numbers from all parts of Europe, and the general wealth continued to increase.

§ 5. The Dutch Seized New Sweden, 1655; and the English Seized New Amsterdam, 1664.

In 1638, the Swedes, encouraged by their king, the great Gustavus Adolphus, and later by Queen Christina, a very able ruler, had planted a colony in Delaware. In this colonization, which spread to Pennsylvania, Peter Minuit, the shrewd German trader, was one of the leaders. In

1655, when Sweden was unable, in the terrible times of the Thirty Years' War, to protect the colony, Stuyvesant attacked and conquered it, adding it to New Netherlands. In 1664, New Amsterdam and New Netherlands were seized by a fleet sent out by Charles II, and the Dutch colony became an English domain. The people of the colony welcomed the change from Dutch to English rule, and the wrathful Stuyvesant could persuade none of them to offer resistance. King Charles gave the colony to his brother James, the Duke of York, who himself afterwards became king.

§ 6. New York Became an English City in Fact as Well as in Name.

The city on Manhattan Island continued to prosper under the English system of representative government as it had prospered under the Dutch tyranny. The transfer of sovereignty led to the immigration of many English and Scotch colonists, so that the English-speaking people soon came to control the social as well as the political life. The method of seizure was peculiar, indeed, and worthy of a king and of an age in which Henry Morgan, the Welsh pirate and buccaneer, could pillage the

Peter Stuyvesant's Wrath at the Demand for the Surrender of New Amsterdam.

Spanish cities of Panama and Portobello, and sail to London with his wealth to receive a baronetcy at the hands of Charles. The seizure of New Amsterdam was avenged by the Dutch fleet that sailed up the Thames in 1665 and destroyed practically all the merchantmen and war-ships in the river and upon the southern coast of England. The English and Dutch war lasted for ten years more, but did not vitally affect American history.

§ 7. The English Revolution Reached New York.

All was not peace in New York after the English secured control. Government was far more fair and just than in the times of Dutch authority, but it was not yet as fair and just as many people wished. When William and Mary came to the English throne, their sympathizers in New York demanded new rulers. The friends of King James were called "aristocrats," the friends of King William "democrats." These latter were in the majority; and without legal right they selected Jacob Leisler, a German merchant of wealth and high social position, as military commander and ruler of the city. For two years this ruler selected by the people held office by their consent, and governed the city well. In 1691, he was displaced by a lieutenant-governor sent over by the King, who entirely misunderstood the conditions. Leisler's enemies secured his arrest and execution as a traitor; but the lieutenant-governor, when he fully understood the merits of Leisler's conduct, died himself soon after of remorse because he had signed the death-warrant of a martyr to the cause of human liberty. Leisler's life and death did much to advance the cause of popular self-government in America.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. Why were the Iroquois friends of the Dutch, but enemies of the French?
2. What motives led the Dutch to the Hudson valley?
3. How many and what nations claimed the Hudson valley?
4. Why did Governor Minuit buy the island of Manhattan from the Indians? Did he drive a good bargain?
5. What was the patroon system? Was it entirely successful?
6. What manner of ruler was Peter Stuyvesant?
7. Who established the first successful colony in Delaware?
8. Why did the people of New Amsterdam surrender without resistance to the English in 1664?
9. Was the seizure of the city an unusual sort of affair for those times?
10. Was New York as prosperous as New Amsterdam?
11. Was Leisler a good ruler? Was he legally appointed?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Irving's *Knickerbocker History of New York:* Dutch Character.
Brady's *Colonial Fights and Fighters:* Morgan.
Fiske's *Dutch and Quaker Colonies:* Vol. I., especially Chap. IX.
Hart's *Contemporaries*, Vol. I., 520–562: The Dutch.
Roosevelt's *New York*, Chap. I.: Hudson's Voyage.
Schuyler's *Colonial New York:* Introduction: The Patroons.
Todd's *History of New York City.*
Brodhead's *New York State*, Chaps. IV.–V.: The Conquest of New Amsterdam.
Frothingham's *Rise of the Republic*, Chap. III.: Leisler.
Lossing's *Empire State*, Chap. VIII.
Harper's *Encyclopædia of United States History:* New Amsterdam, New York, New Sweden.
Uhlman's *Landmark History.*
Consult also various Guide-books to New York.

ADDITIONAL TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION BY INDIVIDUALS OR THE CLASS.

1. The Iroquois and the English.
2. Early Dutch Settlements.
3. The Dutch West India Company.

4. Early New York, its Houses, Public Buildings, Canals, Buildings, Streets, Farms, etc.
5. Gustavus Adolphus, Colonizer.
6. The Swedes in Delaware.
7. Peter Stuyvesant.
8. Trade and Piracy on the High Seas and in Long Island Sound.
9. Dutch Misrule.
10. Dutch Religious Toleration.
11. The Mistake of King and Government in Dealing with Leisler.
12. King William in his Relation to the Colonies.
13. Fort Orange (Albany).
14. The Struggle for the Fur-trade.
15. The Story of the Seizure of New Amsterdam.
16. Adrian Block, Who in 1613, with his Crew, Spent the Winter on Manhattan Island, and in 1614 Discovered the Connecticut River, Block Island, etc.
17. The Protest of the Plymouth Company against the Dutch Occupation of the Hudson Valley.
18. The Career of Peter Minuit.
19. The Patroons.
20. The Dutch and the Indians.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1607. Jamestown is settled.
1609. Hudson explores the Hudson River, and
1609. The Dutch begin trade with the Indians.
1614. Forts are built near Albany, and on Manhattan Island.
1626. Peter Minuit buys the island from the Indians for the Dutch West India Company.
1639. Lands in the Hudson valley are granted to small farmers.
1641. Eighteen languages are spoken in New Amsterdam.
1638. The Swedes establish a colony in Delaware.
1655. The Dutch take New Sweden.
1664. The English take New Amsterdam.
1691. Leisler, a democrat, is executed for treason in taking a public office without royal warrant.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE ENGLISH IN THE LATER COLONIES.

§ 1. English Catholics Established the Colony of Maryland.

CATHOLICS as well as Puritans were at a great political disadvantage in England in the early days of the seventeenth century which saw Virginia and Massachusetts colonized. They could occupy no public offices. They refused to conform to the Anglican Episcopal State-Church, holding that it was then but two generations old, for in their opinion Roman Catholicism had been the religion of England until the time of Henry VIII, and many of the oldest families, especially those in the country districts, were still Roman Catholic. George Calvert, a recent convert to the Catholic faith, was a rich gentleman of Yorkshire, who wished to find a refuge in the New World for his fellow-religionists. After exploring the country north of Virginia, and finding it attractive, he obtained a grant of the land from King Charles I, and as a compliment to the Queen, Henrietta Maria, who was a loyal Catholic from France, he called it Maryland. He was made lord proprietary with sovereign powers, and was given the title of Lord Baltimore, but died before he could set out for his new possessions. His son Cecil, second Lord Baltimore, established a colony at St. Mary's in 1634.

Coat of Arms of the Calverts.

§ 2. Maryland Prospered Despite the Intolerant Puritans.

People of all religious creeds were tolerated for a half-century, as in Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Amsterdam. They found Maryland a goodly land, full of waterways, and bountifully supplied by Nature with game, birds, fish, oysters, and crabs. The climate was delightful and the soil fertile. The conditions of life were all favorable. But for an invasion of Puritans from England, Virginia, and New England, Maryland would have been peaceful. The new-comers, however, in their zeal for the strictest morality and for religious observances, brought on civil war in 1657, during the time of the Puritan Commonwealth in England. From this period to the Revolution, Maryland was no longer strictly free to people of all religions, but Puritanism was in the ascendancy, as in Massachusetts.

§ 3. The English Established a Successful Colony in New Jersey in 1665.

Several English colonies had already failed in northern New Jersey, and several attempts to colonize had been thwarted by the Dutch, who already had very small settlements at Bergen and elsewhere when the first successful enterprise was undertaken by Philip Carteret, who established Elizabethtown in 1665. In the preceding year the Duke of York had granted the region between the Delaware and the ocean to Lord John Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. Later there came in colonies from New England as well as from across the sea, so that New Jersey soon had a considerable population, engaged almost entirely in agriculture. Almost from the first the colony was divided into East and West Jersey, but the two lords proprietary

sold out one after the other through a long period of years to the Quakers and their supporters, among whom was William Penn, so that by 1682 they owned it all.

§ 4. The People of the Colony Lived in Peaceful Harmony.

In 1702, after many legal disputes between factions among the colonists and also among the proprietors, the colony was taken into the control of the English King. New Jersey had from the beginning strong Scotch Presbyterian and English Puritan elements in its population, but its history is that of peaceful agricultural development rather than of vigorous religious and political dissension. No large towns grew up, and the people were widely separated upon their farms.

§ 5. Friends of King Charles Established a Colony in the Carolinas.

The "Merry Monarch" of Stuart ancestry, Charles II, to whom the English throne was restored in 1660, had some good qualities. Among these qualities was a desire to reward his friends when he could do so at small cost to himself. One of the first things he did was to grant in 1663 the region south of Virginia to eight noblemen and gentlemen as lords proprietors. They made settlements as far apart as the Virginia border and Charleston, which they called Charles Town in honor of the King. The colony naturally was divided into North and South Carolina, so named many years before for Charles I, whose name in Latin is Carolus. Sometimes there were two governors, and sometimes one was enough. The lords proprietors cared for profits only, and their rule was soon unpopular.

§ 6. The Population was Cosmopolitan.

North Carolina had already a little settlement of people from Virginia when the English proprietors began systematic colonizing efforts, which at first were directed chiefly to South Carolina. Thither came Englishmen, Huguenots, Germans, Dutch, Welsh, and Scotch-Irish. In South Carolina were soon developed rice and indigo plantations which called for cheap labor. Many Negro slaves were imported. To North Carolina, especially after 1744, there was a still larger migration of people, chiefly Virginians, English, and Scotch-Irish. Slaves were few.

§ 7. The People Objected to Tyranny.

Unfortunately for the Carolinas, the early government was based upon a constitution drawn up for the lords proprietors by John Locke, a great English philosopher. It reproduced the grades of mediæval feudalism to far greater extent than even the patroon system that the Dutch had tried earlier in the century. This "Grand Model" made trouble because while it was not practical, and was wholly behind the spirit and needs of the times, the Carolinians for some years tried to obey it. The people were divided into many grades and classes with fanciful names and rights. It is interesting to note that at the

crisis, the "Grand Model" was forgotten, for in 1690 the governor, Colleton, who had violated the colonists' ideas of justice, was deported to England with the same swiftness and decision that Andros experienced at the hands of colonial Englishmen in Massachusetts.

§ 8. The Quakers Established a Colony in Pennsylvania.

Half a century after most of the problems of colonization had been solved, Pennsylvania came into being. Its founder

William Penn Discussing a Treaty with the Indians.

was a wealthy Quaker and a distinguished statesman, by name William Penn, to whom King Charles owed a considerable debt. Penn wished to establish in the New World a refuge for Quakers, just as Carver and Bradford had made a refuge for Separatists in Plymouth, Winthrop a refuge for Puritans in Massachusetts, and the Calverts a refuge for Catholics in Maryland. The European world

had not yet learned to let men think for themselves. Uniformity in religion and despotism or aristocracy in government seemed necessary to make strong nations. Penn was already familiar with colonization, for he had a proprietary interest in New Jersey. In 1681 he secured from Charles the grant of Pennsylvania in discharge of the royal debt, and in 1682 he wisely bought from the Indians the land actually needed for settlement.

§ 9. William Penn Brought Many Germans to His Colony.

Many Quakers came to the colony, where indeed there were already not a few earlier settlers; and Philadelphia, the City of Brotherly Love in Penn's Woods, was by 1700 the largest and richest city in the New World. He knew the awful results of the Thirty Years' War in Germany, where whole districts were almost entirely depopulated, and where the few survivors were hiding in caves and in hollow trees. He sent agents to Germany, Switzerland, and Belgium to gather these wretched men and women together as colonists, and brought them over in his own ships. This was a wonderful kindness to the Protestant refugees, but

The Second Home of William Penn in Philadelphia, Roofed with Slate and Elegantly Furnished.

it was also a benefit to the colony, for better citizens in industry and character never came to America. There came also to Pennsylvania, Swedes, Finns, and Welsh, so that the English Quakers were barely a majority of all the people.

§ 10. The Colony was Very Successful and Happy.

The laws of Pennsylvania were always mild. There was civil and religious freedom, secured by self-government. There were no factions among the people, and no wars with the Indians. "Happy is the people that has no history," may well be written of the Pennsylvanians; and in truth, "Blessed are the meek, for they shall inherit the earth," may be written of the Quakers in Pennsylvania. Their political troubles were few and slight. As for William Penn himself, though his colony cost him almost his entire fortune, he left a reputation for ability and righteousness to which few others in colonial history are equal.

William Penn.

Born, 1644; died, 1718. Rich Quaker: Statesman: Philanthropist.

§11. Delaware Grew in Population.

After the English took New Amsterdam, the question of the ownership of Delaware, which the Swedes had first colonized and the Dutch had then conquered, became a matter of dispute. In 1685 it was organized as a territory of Pennsylvania with a separate assembly but with the same governor. Its population was largely increased by immigration of English and German settlers from Pennsylvania.

§ 12. The People All Lived Near the Atlantic Coast.

The founding of the Carolinas and Pennsylvania ends the story of colonization during the seventeenth century in the present region of the United States. The year 1702 saw twelve colonies here, — New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut; New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania (with Delaware, its dependent colony); and Maryland, Virginia, and the two Carolinas. In that year New Hampshire, New Jersey, and North Carolina still had only small populations. The largest cities were Philadelphia, New York, Boston, and Charleston. Nearly all the people lived near the Atlantic coast, or in some river-valley by which the ocean could easily be reached.

§ 13. Modern Estimates of the Population Vary.

No census of the people in our country was taken until the year 1790, when the number was 4,000,000. A century before that time it was considered "unlucky" to be counted in a roll-book. There may have been, in those days of tyranny and oppression, as much good sense as superstition in a man's unwillingness to give a government officer the names of himself and of members of his family, and items of property and business. Estimates of the country's population for 1700, the end of the seventeenth century, vary from 255,000 to 400,000. They are based upon voting-lists, church-membership lists, estimates sent to the home government in England by the royal governors, and estimates by the agents of English merchants, who were trying to develop New World trade. The lists were very deficient, including by no means all the people, while many of the estimates were extravagantly large.

Besides all the free white settlers, there were many thousand Negro slaves, and several thousand white bond-servants. It is now impossible to arrive at any thoroughly reliable estimate of their numbers.

§ 14. The Lowest Estimate.

The lowest estimate of the number of colonists in 1700 is as follows: viz., —

New Hampshire	5,000		
Massachusetts	70,000		
Rhode Island	6,000		
Connecticut	25,000	New England Colonies,	105,000
New York	25,000		
New Jersey	14,000		
Pennsylvania with Delaware	21,000	Middle Colonies . . .	60,000
Maryland	25,000		
Virginia	60,000		
Carolinas	5,000	Southern Colonies . .	90,000
Population in all the colonies			255,000

In all human history no colonization like this — so rapid, so great, so successful — had ever been witnessed before. In these colonies was to be seen during the next century the preparation for the greatest experiment the human race has ever tried: a nation with religious freedom, political equality, complete self-government in national and local affairs, universal opportunity for education; in short, — democracy.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. What motives led the Calverts to Maryland?
2. For whom was the colony named? Why?
3. Who put an end to religious toleration in Maryland?

4. What lords proprietors secured New Jersey ?
5. Under what circumstances were the Jerseys united as one colony ?
6. Was the early history of New Jersey peaceful or excited ?
7. To whom did King Charles II grant the Carolinas ?
8. From what peoples did emigrants go to the Carolinas ?
9. Did the early government of the Carolinas satisfy the people ?
10. Compare the fortune of Colleton in the Carolinas with that of Andros in New England at the time of the "English Revolution."
11. Who founded a home for Quakers in the New World ?
12. How did he treat the Indians ?
13. What settlers did he bring to America besides the Quakers ?
14. Was his colony successful ?
15. What was the relation of Delaware to Pennsylvania ?
16. What colonies were there in 1702 ?
17. Was their population exactly recorded ?
18. What is a low estimate as to the number of colonists ?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Bancroft's *United States History*, Vol. I., Chap. XIX. : Summary of Early Colonial History.

Fiske's *Dutch and Quaker Colonies*, Vol. II., Chaps. XII., XVI., XVII. : Penn.

Hart's *Contemporaries*, Vol. I., pp. 548–575 : Germans, William Penn, The Jerseys.

Channing's *Student's History United States*, Chap. II.

Consult the standard encyclopedias : George Calvert, Cecil Calvert, Berkeley, Carteret, "Grand Model," Thirty Years' War, Delaware (early history).

Hodges's *William Penn.*

Harper's *Encyclopedia United States History :* Census.

Eggleston's *Transit of Civilization*, Chap. IV. : Superstitions and Religious Toleration.

Thwaites's *Colonies*, pp. 82–111, Maryland ; the Carolinas : pp. 201, 207–217, Delaware, Pennsylvania.

TOPICS FOR INQUIRY OR DISCUSSION.

1. Catholics in England in 1634.
2. The Puritan Invasion of Maryland.
3. Disputes among the Lords Proprietors in New Jersey.

4. The Quakers (Friends) and William Penn.
5. Penn's Treaties with the Indians.
6. Early Negro-slavery in South Carolina.
7. The Banishment of Governor Colleton.
8. The Population of Pennsylvania: Was it more or less Cosmopolitan than New York or the Carolinas?
9. The Large Cities of our Country in 1700.
10. Opposition to Census-taking in Early Days.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1607. Jamestown is settled.
1620. Plymouth is settled.
1626. Minuit buys Manhattan Island.
1634. Lord Baltimore establishes a colony at St. Mary's, Maryland.
1638. Minuit settles a colony in Delaware for the Swedes.
1665. Carteret establishes Elizabethtown in New Jersey.
1675. Newark is established by Puritans from New England.
1657–90. The Puritans are in control in Maryland.
1680. Charleston, South Carolina, is established.
1682. Penn establishes Philadelphia.
1685. Delaware is added to Pennsylvania through purchase by Penn from the king.
1688–9. "The English Revolution."
1690. The people of the Carolinas object to tyranny, and deport the Governor.

NOTE. — Census figures tell much to the student. A reason why Massachusetts played so important a part in colonial history lies in the number as well as the quality of its population. Pennsylvania had a very large part of its population in or near Philadelphia itself, while the people of most of the colonies were widely scattered. Virginia and Massachusetts together had half of all the people of the colonies, but a very large part of the population of Virginia was composed of Negroes, who themselves had no active influence upon the development of political and religious ideas.

PART TWO.

PROGRESS OF THE COLONIES.

CHAPTER I.

THE INDIANS AND THE EARLY SETTLERS.

§ 1. The Origin of the American Aborigines is Unknown.

For untold centuries men have lived here in the New World. The aboriginal men were of one race, whose origin is very close to the stock of primitive humankind. They may have crossed from Asia when there was continuous land from Kamchatka to Alaska, or they may have drifted across the Pacific Ocean in canoes and rafts from Northern Asia. No one yet knows the facts. But we do know that human beings have lived here since the glacial age covered the northern part of the present United States with mountains of ice, carving out its valleys, and grinding down its hills.

An Indian Summer Home.

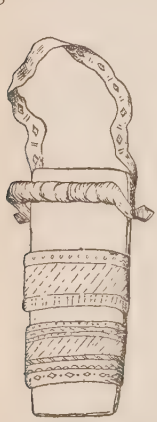
§ 2. Highest in Development were the Incas of Peru.

When the first Europeans came to these shores they found, in the different regions, tribes of natives in various degrees of culture. Highest in development were the

Incas of Peru, who knew how to build fine structures, and to make fine roads; how to work some of the metals; how to cultivate the soil successfully, and to raise llamas and alpacas; how to compose oral prose and poetry; and how to keep accounts. But they did not know how to write their language, and had the most despotic government that the world has ever known. They and their subject tribes outnumbered all other American aborigines together, reaching fully ten million souls.

§ 3. The Aztecs and Incas Attracted the Spaniards.

Somewhat below them in culture, were the Aztecs of Mexico, with their subject peoples numbering a million or more. Like the Incas, they were governed despotically. They were especially devoted to astronomy, of which they knew in 1500 quite as much as the Europeans. To their gods of the sky they sacrificed annually 20,000 human victims. The Incas and Aztecs of the American tropics concern the history of the United States in one way only: by their almost incredible wealth, they attracted the attention of the Spaniards so completely that our land was left to colonization by other nations.



The Cradle of an Indian Baby.

§ 4. The Indians were of Various Stages of Culture.

Here in the United States, with its severer climate of the north temperate zone, were the Indians, as we understand the meaning of that word, the wild people of forest, river, and plain, the savage warriors, the laborious

squaws, the pappooses, swaddled and bound. Here were their cornfields, mounds, wigwams, tomahawks, and fires to torture the captives taken in battle. The number of these Indians is conjectural, and the estimates vary from two hundred and fifty thousand to two millions, from Atlantic Ocean to Pacific, and from Lakes to Gulf. They varied from the strong, fierce, at times really brilliant Iroquois of the Northeast, to the miserable clay-eating Diggers, of the Southwest. They were divided into many different tribes and bands, and spoke many different tongues.

Indian Village of Secotan in Carolina. Here, in 1587, Manteo, Sachem of the Croatan Indians, was made by Governor White, Baron of Roanoke, the First and only Lord ever Created upon our Soil.

§ 5. Our First Settlers saw Algonquin Indians.

In early colonial days, our people had most to do with tribes speaking dialects of the Algonquin language. These Algonquins, less than a

hundred thousand in number, roamed the country from Maine to Dakota and Virginia. In their midst, making as it were an island in the Algonquin sea, were the Huron-Iroquois, where now is Central and Western New York State. After 1715, the Northern Iroquois added to themselves the Tuscaroras of the South, and became the Six Nations. The Tuscaroras had been defeated in war by the white settlers of Carolina. The Iroquois numbered perhaps twenty thousand men, women, and children.

§ 6. Noteworthy Facts About the Indians.

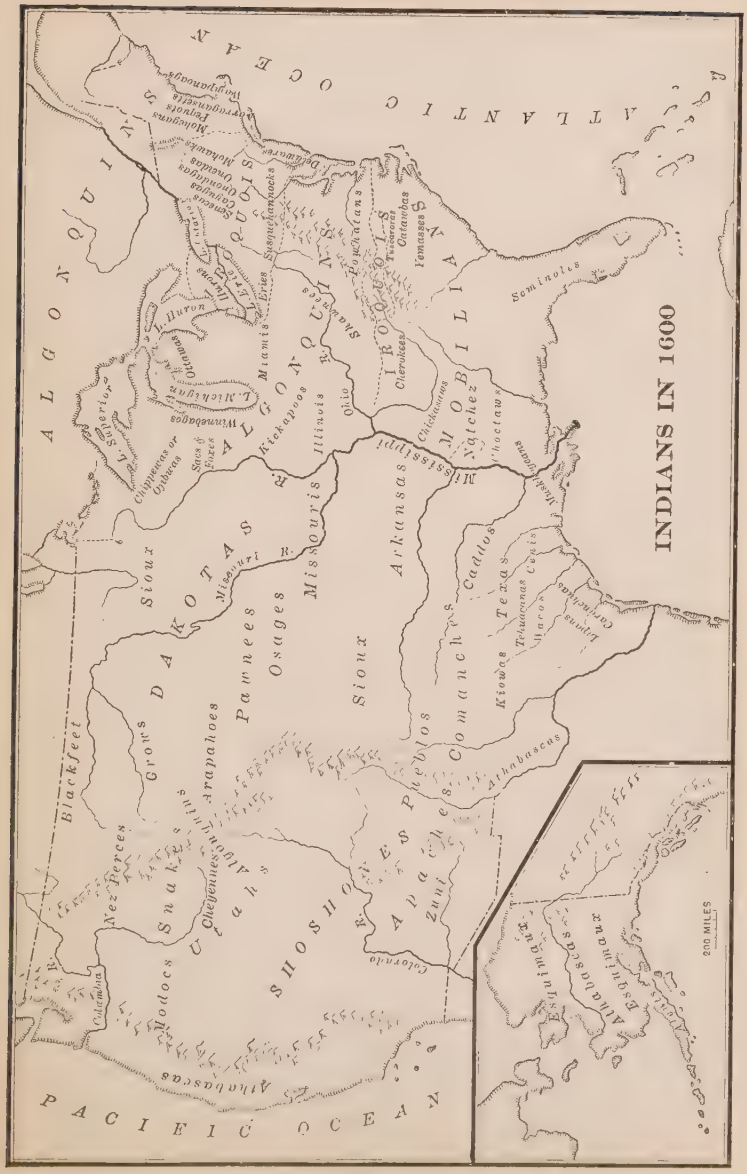
It is impossible in a book of this size to develop fully the subject of the American Indians, but it is profitable to notice some few facts about them.

A Clay Bowl.

First, They were ceaselessly at war with each other. Even after our colonial history began, the Iroquois fell upon the Illinois and killed nearly all of them. The Europeans did not bring war to this continent, they found it here, as terrible as ever Europe knew it.

Second, When the Europeans came, Indian culture was already on the decline. The fiercest and wildest Indians were killing off the more peaceful tribes. Disease was doing its fatal work. Disease and war nearly wiped out the Hurons in the period after their discovery by the French. Population was generally decreasing in all the tribes.

Third, They were making no systematic use of the soil


INDIANS IN 1600
ATLANTIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN
ALGONQUINS
IROQUOIS
MOBILIANS
DAKOTAS
SHOSHONEES
Pueblos
Apaches
Comanches
Athabascas
Blackfeet
Crees
Sioux
Arapahoes
Pawnees
Osages
Missouris
Arkansas
Caddos
Texas
Kiowas
Snakes
Utahs
Navajos
Chippewas or Ojibwas
Sacs & Foxes
Kickapoos
Illinois
Ohio
Cherokees
Natchez
Choctaws
Chickasaws
Creeks
Seminoles
Yamasees
Catawbas
Tuscaroras
Mohawks
Oneidas
Onondagas
Senecas
Cayugas
Delawares
Shawanoes
Miamis
Wyandots
Hurons
Ottawas
Winnebagoes
Menomonees
Sioux
Missouri R.
Mississippi R.
Red River
Columbia R.
Colorado
Rio Grande
Mexico
Yucatan
Honduras
Nicaragua
Panama
Bahamas
Florida
Cuba
Jamaica
Hayti
Porto Rico
200 MILES

and its resources. On the contrary, their cultivation of corn and of tobacco was spasmodic. They preferred fishing and hunting to work, and preferred fighting to fishing. After untold ages of occupation of the land, they could show as the result, not even honest and frank characters. They preferred to kill by stealth and ambush, for their motives were revengeful rather than daring.

Fourth, They had some admirable powers and qualities. They could endure terrible fatigue and hardship, could see and hear with marvelous acuteness, made beautiful canoes, bows, arrows, snowshoes, believed in self-government, and would die for a friend.

Fifth, and most important, There are many more Indians, and persons largely of Indian descent, now within the United States, than there were in 1600. Most of them have been absorbed into the population, have married the whites as equals, and are now indistinguishable in our population. In 1900 there were five thousand Iroquois farmers in New York State alone. It is questionable whether there ever were four thousand Iroquois warriors alive in any generation of the old times. Even of the Indians regularly recognized as such by the Government of the United States, there are now a quarter of a million. It is to the credit of the Indians of the United States that with but few exceptions they preferred death to any form of slavery or servitude, and have thereby maintained for the race final equality with the white men.

§ 7. The Red Men were the Teachers of the White.

To our ancestors the presence of the Indians was, on the whole, helpful rather than harmful. By their generous

kindness the Indians made possible the success of both Jamestown and Plymouth in early years. By their trade they made the Dutch and French colonies successful. They taught the early colonists that woodcraft of which as civilized Europeans they knew nothing. They taught the Virginians how to grow tobacco, corn, and potatoes. Most helpful of all to the colonists, they fought them, and compelled the various colonies — English, Dutch, Swede, German, Scotch-Irish — to draw together for protection. But for the early Indian wars colonial union would have been long delayed; indeed, there might easily have been civil war. Even as it was, the English fought with the colonial Dutch, and the Dutch with the Swedes, as we have seen. But for the presence of their Indian enemies the English might have fallen to fighting each other.

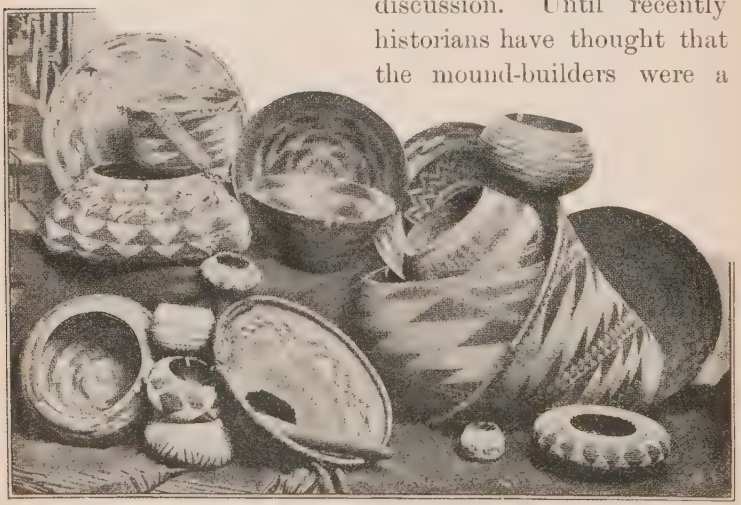
A Clay Vase.

The importance of the Indians in the early life of the colonies was great. Individuals among them often came to live with the settlers. In war and in peace to the early colonists the Indians were teachers of the necessity of vigilance, bravery, self-reliance, energy, and honor; for the Indians, whether friends or foes, never spared the slothful, the cowardly, the vacillating, or the weak. In the great strange school of Nature in the New World, Cavalier, Puritan, Quaker, gentleman, mechanic, bond-servant, Negro slave, jail-bird, found the

Indian his invaluable instructor. The red man compelled the white man to forget the Old World, and to bring his soul as well as his body into the life of the New.

§ 8. The Mound-Builders were Indians.

In various parts of the United States, especially in the Ohio valley, there are interesting mounds built upon geometrical lines, and containing pottery and other relics of the builders and occupants. These mounds have caused much discussion. Until recently historians have thought that the mound-builders were a



Indian Housework Baskets.

peculiar race of human beings who came from Asia to our country many centuries ago, and left these mounds along their path through the land. However, to-day it is more commonly believed that some Indian tribes rose in intelligence and industry, and developed the culture represented in the mounds and their buried treasures. Wars with more

savage tribes finally destroyed the mound-building Indians. This belief is in accord with various other evidences that indicate the decline of Indian culture at the time of the discovery of America by the Europeans.

§ 9. The Indians Could Rise No Higher.

The Indians of the United States presented such extremes and peculiarities of civil society and of savagery as to make an understanding of their qualities by no means easy. As modern America has in it towns and persons of many various stages of development in intelligence, goodness, wealth, so in less degree did the Indian tribes and individuals differ from each other. Many tribes carried on war with terrible cruelty; but they usually elected their chiefs and decided in council whether or not to go upon the "warpath." Their community-life was usually quiet and orderly. They had many reasonable ideas of religion and morality. To us their condition seems a singular mixture of superstition and of intelligence, of culture and of barbarism, of good and of evil. But the extremes of the civilization of the white men who have replaced the red are even greater. There is no more interesting feature of Indian life than the "totem" or emblem of tribe and clan with the many peculiar customs attached to it. An Indian husband belonged after marriage to the clan of his wife, and came under the protection of her "totem," — bear, wolf, lizard, hawk. The position of an Indian girl was apparently that of a slave. Yet she could adopt a brother from another clan, who thereupon left his family "totem" to take hers. The essence of their religion was a dutiful respect for the powers of Nature as symbolized by the

"totems." The red man of America represented the highest culture attainable by a single race that came in contact with no other races. The white people of Europe represented the culture of several races, Teutonic, Mediterranean, Alpine, in rivalry with each other.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. How long have the aboriginal people lived in America? What opinions are held as to their original coming to America?
2. What people were most numerous here in 1492? What were some of the things these people knew how to do?
3. How numerous were the Aztecs? Where did they live? What was their way of trying to please their gods of the sky?
4. Were the Indians of the north temperate zone highly developed in the industrial arts? Were they numerous?
5. Who were the Algonquins? the Iroquois?
6. Were the Indians at peace with each other in 1492?
7. Was the aboriginal population in our land increasing in 1492?
8. Were the Indians good farmers? Were they honest and daring?
9. What were their good qualities?
10. Were any Indians successfully enslaved?
11. Are there as many Indians now as there were in 1492?
12. Of what advantage to the early colonists were the red men of the forest — in agriculture, in warfare, in pioneering?
13. Discuss the mound-builders.
14. What extremes of culture and savagery were represented by the Indians?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Source Readers*, Vol I., pp. 91–130: Indian life.

Starr's *American Indians.*

Parkman's *Jesuits*, and *Pontiac*, especially Introductions.

George Bancroft's *United States*, Vol. I., pp. 382–395. (Part II., Chap. V.): The Red Men of New England.

Thorpe's *History of American People*, Chap. I.: The Wild Men of the Forests.

Harper's *Encyclopedia United States History:* Indians, Iroquois, Indian Problem.

H. H. Bancroft's *Native Races of the Pacific Coast.*

Hazard and Dutton's *Indians and Pioneers.*

Fiske's *United States History*, Chap. I. : Ancient America.

Prescott's *Conquest of Mexico*, and *Conquest of Peru:* Aztecs, Incas.

Powell's *Indian Languages.*

Larned's *History for Ready Reference*, Vol. I., pp. 78–108 : American Aborigines.

Farnham's *Life of Parkman:* Various passages regarding his sojourn among the Indians.

ADDITIONAL TOPICS FOR CONSIDERATION AND INVESTIGATION BY INDIVIDUALS OR THE CLASS.

1. The Culture of the Incas : Government of the Incas.
2. The Aztec City of Mexico.
3. The Aztec Religion.
4. Highways and Buildings of the Incas.
5. The "Long-house" and Village-life of the Iroquois.
6. The Powhatan Confederacy.
7. The Village of Secotan.
8. The Algonquin Language.
9. The Wars between the Hurons and the Iroquois.
10. Indian Corn and its Cultivation.
11. Indian Runners and their Great Exploits.
12. Indian Basketry.
13. Indian Babies — Girls and Boys.
14. The Indians and their Reception of the White Men : in Virginia ; in Massachusetts ; in the Hudson Valley ; in Canada ; in the Mississippi Valley.
15. The Indians as Teachers of the White Men.
16. The Mounds in the Ohio Valley : Forms ; Contents.

Note 1. — The subject of the American aborigines, with the many subtopics, is far more interesting than it is important in our history. After the early years their own history affected to only a small degree the progress of the transplanted white race in America. So abundant is the material upon this subject, both in print and in pictures, that it affords opportunity in arousing the imagination of boys and girls as nothing else does. School compositions with drawings are desirable. See *Suggestions to Teachers.*

Note 2. — Persons of the white race must be fair to the Indians as well as to the Negroes in all estimates of their capacity for education. The great ruler, Porfirio Diaz, President of Mexico, is a full-blooded Indian.

CHAPTER II.

INDIAN WARS.

§ 1. The Pequots were Almost Entirely Destroyed.

The first considerable war between the red and the white men was in New England. The Pequots in 1636 lived in or near the valley of the Thames River, in what is now the State of Connecticut. They were the fiercest of the Indians upon the Atlantic coast. To punish them for murdering a few whites, the Massachusetts Bay government sent an expedition against them, which accomplished nothing more than stirring them up to further outrages. A larger force, consisting of a hundred white men and nearly five hundred Mohegans, Narragansetts, and Nyantics, surprised by night the main body of the Pequots in a stockaded fort near what is now Stonington, set fire to their palisades and wigwams, and killed four hundred of them. Only five escaped. The other Pequots soon afterwards were either killed or scattered, and for forty years from that time there was general peace between the red and the white men throughout New England.

§ 2. King Philip Resented the Presence of the Colonists.

The destruction of the Pequots left several warlike Indian tribes in New England, — the Pokanokets and the Wampanoags of Massachusetts, the Narragansetts of Rhode Island, and the Nipmucks of central Massachusetts, who gradually grew hostile, though they had been friendly. Massasoit, who so greatly helped the Pilgrims in their first days, was dead, and new generations of white men and of red men were upon the stage of action. Although the

learned John Eliot preached to many tribes, translated the Bible for them, and even converted four thousand Indians to Christianity, most of them resented the progress of a strange civilization and the advance of a superior population. Philip, son of Massasoit, was a bitter enemy of the "praying Indians," as Eliot's converts were called, and regarded them as traitors to the cause of the aborigines. He also believed, without any evidence, that his older brother's death at Plymouth had been caused by poison. He knew that the crowding in of the whites upon the lands of the Indians meant an end to their free life. Too intelligent to desire war, he was ready to accept it when it came.

Metacoma, "King Philip," and His Mark or Signature.

§ 3. A Great War Raged, 1675–1676.

One of the Indian converts, John Sassamon, who had been educated at Harvard College and was especially trusted by King Philip, told the governor of Plymouth that Philip was planning war, and in revenge some of the

Wampanoags murdered him. For this murder the Plymouth government hung the murderers. Even then Philip, knowing the strength of the whites, hesitated to attack them. But his followers were less foresighted. To avenge the hanging, the Wampanoags burned four villages in the colony, and war raged. The Wampanoags were defeated; but Philip escaped to the Nipmucks, who made warpaths through the region from Boston to the Connecticut River, and persuaded the Narragansetts and other tribes to join them. The Narragansett chief, Canonchet, gathered them together, three thousand in all, in a palisaded fort near what is now South Kingston, Rhode Island. There they were attacked by a thousand white men, who killed a thousand of the Indians, and took the rest captive. Not long after, Canonchet was slain. Philip himself was killed by a treacherous Indian. His captive child was sold as a slave in Bermuda.

§ 4. After 1676 Peace Reigned in New England.

This great war was not induced by any peculiar severity of the people of New England toward the Indians. On the contrary, the colonists had bought their lands of the Indians and had treated them fairly. It was an inevitable war, due to the fact that the civilized white men and the wild red men could not both occupy the same region.

At its close, twelve colonial towns had been wiped out of existence, and forty more had been visited with fire and tomahawk. Only Connecticut had escaped without bloodshed, for the Mohegans, who lived there, were peaceable and friendly. More than a thousand white men had perished, and many hundred women and children. So terrible had been the losses that Ireland raised money for the relief of Plymouth. But the Indians of New England never rose in a body again to attack the colonists. Many of the captives were sold into slavery in the West Indies and elsewhere, in pursuance of a course of action that in all history has been a pathetic feature of race-struggles. Some tribes migrated westward, and others northward. Many individuals, influenced by the preaching of Eliot, adopted the ways and dress of the white men, and, living in the colonial towns and villages, were soon absorbed in the general mass of the population. At the beginning of the war there were fifty-five thousand white people and thirty thousand Indians in New England. Within a generation the tribal Indians were so few and so remote as to cease to be important in New England life.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. What was the cause of the Pequot War?
2. What were its results?
3. What was the opinion of the son of Massasoit regarding the white men?
4. Who was John Eliot? What did he do for the Indians?
5. What was the cause of King Philip's War?
6. How did the war end?
7. What were the results of the war?
8. Name some of the important Indian tribes in New England.

ADDITIONAL TOPICS FOR INQUIRY OR DISCUSSION BY INDIVIDUALS OR THE CLASS.

1. The Indians of New England.
2. Indian Forts and Villages
3. The Life of King Philip.
4. The Life of John Eliot: Eliot's "Praying Indians."
5. The Causes of Indian Opposition to the White Men.
6. Indian Leaders.
7. How Goffe, the Regicide, Saved Hadley.
8. Indians as Slaves.
9. The Lives of Massasoit, Squanto, Sassamon, Canonchet, and of other early New England Indians whose names are notable in history because of some individual qualities or services.
10. What Differences Might there Have Been in New England History without any Indians?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Fiske's *Beginnings of New England:* Indians, Pequots, Narragansetts.
Hubbard's *Trouble with the Indians.*
Burton's *Indians of New England.*
Hazard and Dutton's *Indians and Pioneers.*
Harper's *Encyclopedia of United States History:* Pequots; King Philip.
Thwaites's *Colonies:* pp. 136–7; pp. 170–2.
Bancroft's *United States History*, Vol. I., pp. 266–7, and pp. 382–394. (Part I., Chap. XII., and Part II., Chap. V.)
Old South Leaflets, Nos. 21, 52, 87, 88.
See also references at end of preceding Chapter.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1620. Settlement at Plymouth.
1636. Rhode Island and Connecticut are begun.
1636–7. The Pequot War.
1675–6. King Philip's War.

NOTE. — In 1672 occurred the great London fire when Boston raised funds for the relief of the survivors.

CHAPTER III.

EARLY COLONIAL LIFE.

§ 1. The Second Generation of the Colonists Developed New Characteristics, Due to Changed Conditions of Life.

The disposition of most of the early colonists, whether they came from England or Holland, France or Germany, Ireland or Scotland, was to live in the New World as they had lived in the Old. Few wished completely to abandon the old ways. Those who did wish to forget the Old World often became fur-traders and hunters in the wilds and backwoods, and were for long periods of time lost to civilized life. As for the others, not even the wealthiest of them could reproduce here their former modes of existence. The climate of the various parts of the Atlantic coast was different from the climate of any country from which the colonists came. Most of the agricultural products were different. Here they had plenty of land, either free to all, or so cheap as to be within the reach of all persons, not slaves or bond-servants. The pursuits by which the colonists secured their means of living were different from their old occupations.

A few years of life here greatly modified the immigrants themselves, and the children of the immigrants generally lacked the culture, the moderation of thought, and the set habits of their parents. They were more ignorant of books and learning, and were more erratic in thought and action, than their fathers, but they were also more energetic and more progressive. The New World gave mental freedom and moral self-reliance, to all the whites of the second generation.

§ 2. We Reap the Gains of the Struggles of the Early Settlers.

This spirit of self-reliance and of individual liberty marked the change in the characters of the early colonists after the great ocean had separated them from their mother-countries. The early modes of life here are very interesting to us who look back at them from the vantage-ground of the twentieth century. Without the efforts of the first settlers we could never have reached what we are. They learned slowly but surely what freedom in a land of great natural wealth means in the development of human character.

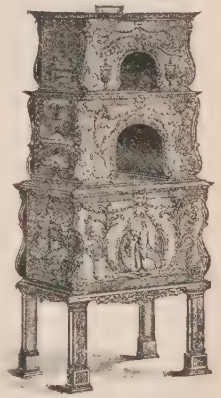
§ 3. Social Classes were Distinct.

It is not possible to go into many details. Life in New England varied from life in New York, and Pennsylvania was equally different from Virginia and South Carolina. Yet everywhere were certain social classes that would now seem very strange to us. There were in politics the free, who could vote, and the unfree, who for various causes could not vote. In New England church membership was a requirement. In Virginia land-ownership or lease-holding was necessary. In the South, particularly in Virginia, the distinction between social classes was much more marked than in the North. The great planters had hundreds of dependants black and white, and the affairs of government were wholly in the hands of the planter class. In all the colonies, however, there were the gentlemen who wore fine clothes and fine linen, the respectable farmers and mechanics of much plainer dress, the numerous white bond-servants, and the still more numerous Negro slaves. The gentlemen ruled in Church and State, formed "Society," and

had large households with more servants than were really needed, for wealthy people habitually practiced great display. Those who worked kept very long hours, but they did not work under pressure, as it is necessary nowadays to work in our modern factories, mills, shops, and mines. Even farm work was easier two centuries ago than it is now when there is heavy machinery to manage.

§ 4. The Modern Comforts of Life were Unknown.

Perhaps it will help us to realize our progress in material things to notice what our colonial forefathers of the seventeenth century did not have.



Oldest Stove in America.

They had no friction matches, no gas, no mineral oil for lighting, no electricity, no coal. Instead, the colonists kept their wood fires overnight by banking them with ashes; for light they burned tallow candles, or, toward the end of the seventeenth century, whale-oil; they burned wood in sticks for cooking, and in great logs for warmth. They had no factories for making any kind of cloth. Their clothes were nearly all made out of cloth woven and spun at home. Cotton was very scarce and dear, and poor people wore outer garments of leather. Travelers went on horseback or afoot, for there were almost no roads for wagons, or wagons for roads. Bridges were yet to be built, and travelers must wade the fords, or swim across streams and rivers. There were no side-walks in the cities and towns.

§ 5. At the Beginnings of American Civilization.

There were no great cities with great buildings, such as libraries, city halls, schoolhouses, factories. There were not even prisons, but offenders were punished by exposure to public scorn in stocks at cross-roads or in market-places.

Punishment in the Public Stocks.

Even the churches were small buildings, for congregations of at most two or three hundred people. The elegant homes of the seventeenth century would seem small and poor now, except in a few articles, such as needle-work and wood-carving. Books were very rare. Even Harvard College had but a few hundred. Ministers were the only learned men. Skilful physicians and surgeons were unknown. There were very few lawyers, to draw up titles to real estate, to prosecute offenders in court, and to advise men in their business affairs. Schools there were, but for only a small part of the year, and for a part of the children and youth, and the teachers were not educated for the work. All things were at their beginnings.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. What was the influence of the New World upon the immigrants?
2. In what respects did the people of the second generation of the colonists differ from those born in the Old World?
3. What was the peculiar spirit of the settlers born and reared here?
4. Into what social classes were the early colonists divided?

5. What was the general style of life of the wealthy?

6. Describe an early colonial home, without "modern conveniences."

7. Describe a colonial village without "modern improvements."

8. What reason have we for saying that "All things were at their beginnings" in America in the seventeenth century?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Source Readers.* Colonial Children.

Earle's *Home Life in Colonial Days.*

Brooks's *Historic Americans*, Chap. I: John Winthrop.

Caldwell's *American History*, pp. 1–24: Early conditions.

Wendell's Literary *History of America*, pp. 13–58. (Bk. I.) The Seventeenth Century.

Lawton's *American Literature.* Chap. I.: The Pioneers. Chap. II.: The Seventeenth Century.

Thorpe's *History of the American People*, pp. 34–43; pp. 47–96: Slavery; Colleges; Social Life.

ADDITIONAL TOPICS FOR INQUIRY OR DISCUSSION.

1. The Employments of the Early Colonists.

2. Old Buildings Dating from the Seventeenth Century.

3. Child-life in the Seventeenth Century in American Towns; in the Country; in School; at Home.

4. Slaves: Bond-servants: Apprentices. — Their Treatment; their Hope of Freedom; their Opportunities to Gain Education and Property.

5. The Households of the Wealthy: Mode of Life; Social Position.

6. A Day in a Home: in New England; in New York; in Pennsylvania; in Virginia; in Charleston.

7. Harvard College Student-life in the Seventeenth Century.

Massachusetts Pine-tree Shilling, 1652.

CHAPTER IV.

COLONIAL LIFE IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY BEFORE COLONIAL UNION.

§ 1. English History Affected American History Vitally.

UNTIL the great War of Independence, our country was only a collection of colonies, all of which, after the English seized New Amsterdam in 1664, belonged to England, three thousand miles across the sea. Many of the events in Europe affected the colonies vitally. One of the most important of these European events was the accession of William III to the English throne, 1689. King William came from Holland, so that, while Holland had lost only a few years before her American colony, her ruler became king of England and of all the English colonies. William III was one of England's best kings: he was just and fair in most of his dealings with the English colonies across the sea. But in that age to get accurate information promptly was even for kings almost impossible.

§ 2. From 1689 to 1754 was a Period of Preparation for a United Nation.

1688–9 is the date of the "English Revolution" which brought King William to the throne, and made the English government much more democratic than it had been before. From that time to 1754, when the agitation for colonial union began, was a period of much interest in our American colonial history. In New England and the Middle Colonies it afforded a transition from rude pioneer life in all the settlements to far more orderly and prosperous conditions. This period before colonial union was marked by frequent

wars, in which the colonists were involved because of their dependence upon England, and by a striking development in the intellectual life of the people and in the institutions of church and government. It began with that most wretched delusion of witchcraft, 1692, which is a blot upon the history of Salem in Massachusetts, and ended with the discovery of the nature of electricity, 1752, by Benjamin Franklin in Philadelphia. It is not strange that the colonists in Massachusetts persecuted for a time some old women as witches, the wealthy and educated as well as the poor and ignorant, and even condemned them to death after a form of trial in court, for England was even more excited at this time regarding witchcraft. Those were unscientific days, when people did not know what we now know about the nature of the human mind and the physical causes of disease. Exact science began many years later with such men as Franklin. Many of its greatest triumphs have been within the memory of men now living.

Harvard College in 1720.

§ 3. Only One College was Founded Before the English Revolution.

In the eighteenth century, colleges, schools, and academies rapidly increased in number and improved in quality.

Harvard, 1636, was the first New World college; then to this were added several more colleges: — William and Mary in Virginia, 1693, founded in honor of the great English king and of the queen in whose right William III ruled; Yale in Connecticut, 1701; Princeton in New Jersey, 1746; and King's College, now Columbia, in New York, which began as a grammar school the same year. Progress in education was far more rapid in the first and comparatively peaceful half of the eighteenth century than in the stormy years of the latter half.

Yale College, 1793.

§ 4. Law and Journalism Became Successful Professions.

This period saw the development of the legal profession, for there were very few lawyers in the colonies during the seventeenth century. Newspapers appeared early in the eighteenth century. *The Boston News-Letter* started in 1704, but soon ceased publication. In 1722, *The New England Courant* was begun by James Franklin, the uncle of Benjamin Franklin; this was the first journal in America that dared to criticise prominent men and important measures in government and religion.

1. The New England Colonies.

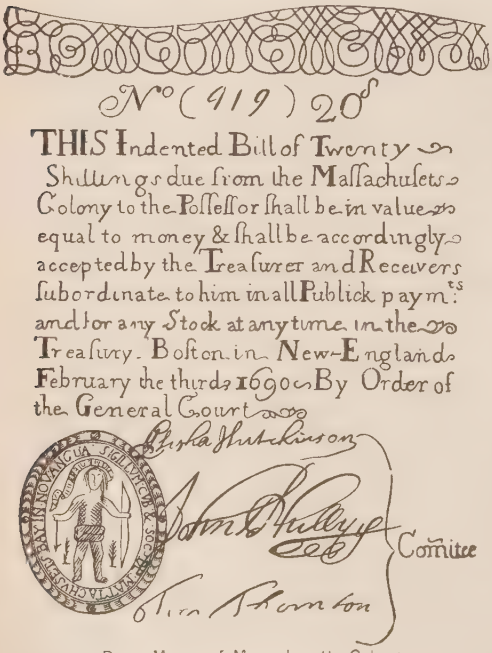
§ 5. A Religious Awakening Led to Moral Progress.

The early part of the eighteenth century saw a religious movement known as "The Great Awakening." It began in Northampton, Massachusetts, with the preaching of Reverend Solomon Stoddard, and was greatly extended and intensified by the eloquence of Reverend Jonathan Edwards, whose sermons shook New England with a moral earthquake, and whose doctrines were discussed in colonies as far away as Virginia. This "Awakening" made many converts, but caused others to leave the Puritan meeting-houses to establish new denominations. It resulted also in encouraging the separation of Church and State, because no longer did all the prominent people attend the one church in town and village. Many colonists, breaking away from former customs and practices, were living in the New World as they would have been ashamed to live in the Old World. To them this revival was of great moral value.

§ 6. The Ocean Trade Became Extensive.

The eighteenth century saw in New England a splendid growth of trade in many lines. The fisheries were developed, and ship-building became an important industry. The fleets of trading-vessels from Newport, Salem, and Boston, disregarding the navigation laws of the mother-country, sailed on all the seas of the world. In 1713 Captain Andrew Robinson of Gloucester in Massachusetts built the first schooner ever made, a type of vessel now universally recognized as more generally useful than any other sailing-ship. Whaling became a great occupation. In the towns

there were many distilleries to convert West Indies molasses into rum. Many persons engaged in the slave trade, and even in piracy upon the high seas. Their ships went freely into and out of all American ports. Nine of every ten Negroes died from inhuman treatment before reaching America. The New World has grown better as well as wiser since those times when Western and Central Africa was made a bloody hunting-ground of slaves for American profit.


N° (919) 20s
THIS Indented Bill of Twenty Shillings due from the Massachusets Colony to the Possessor shall be in value equal to money & shall be accordingly accepted by the Treasurer and Receivers subordinate to him in all Publick paym.ts and for any Stock at any time in the Treasury. Boston in New-England February the thirds 1690 By Order of the General Court
Comitee
Paper Money of Massachusetts Colony.

§ 7. Banking was a Failure.

It was in this period that the first efforts were made in Massachusetts to establish banks, first in 1714, and again in 1741. Both efforts failed. Real estate was made the basis for the issue of the bank notes or bills, but in practice it was found that real estate properties were valued too high, and could not be sold quickly enough to meet commercial needs. Very little metallic money was in circulation, and domestic business was greatly hindered in its development for want of a reliable currency.

2. The Middle Colonies.

§ 8. New York Became the Center of a Regular Mail-Service for All Colonies.

During the same period, 1689–1754, there was in the middle colonies a development similar to that in New England. There was a marked commercial growth, due largely to an increase in the products of the soil and to the flourishing trade in furs with the Indians. Early in the eighteenth century New York became the center for a colonial postal system. In 1692 King William had appointed "a postmaster-general for the northern provinces," as the phrase was, and in 1710 actual operations were begun by the fixing of postal rates, requiring for the mail-carriers free ferry across all rivers, and compelling by legal process the payment for all mail-charges. Henceforth, the horse and postman became more and more familiar figures in the colonies. Colonial union could never have been secured without the development of the post-service for the inter-communication of sentiments, ideas, needs, and plans.

§ 9. Freedom of the Press was Secured.

While Massachusetts was the first colony in which a journalist dared to criticise government and public officials, New York was the first colony in which such criticism was judicially established as the right of free men. In our country, that "freedom of the press" which is essential to democracy, and which we all nowadays consider as natural as freedom to draw breath, was not admitted by the ruling officers until 1735. At this time of great public agitation

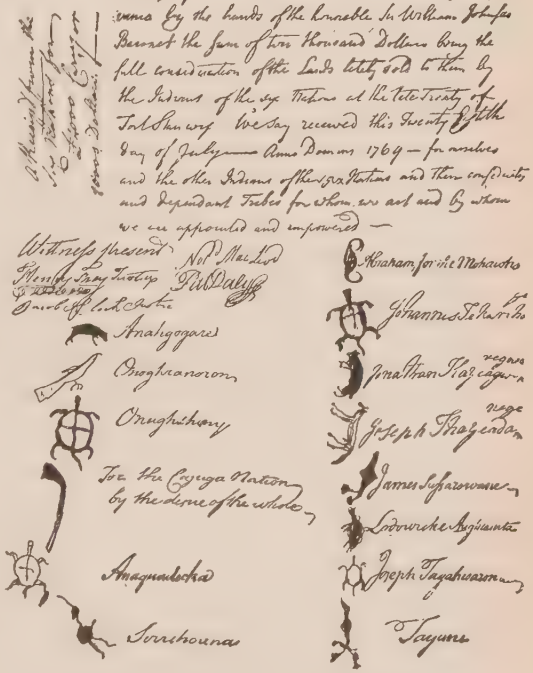
for equal political rights for all, Peter Zenger, a German printer, published in New York the first newspaper devoted to the advocacy and defense of the common people's rights. In his paper he attacked the governor of the province, who burned Zenger's printing-shop and arrested him as a law-breaker. The jury at the trial, supported by the learned judges, acquitted Zenger, and this acquittal was accepted everywhere as marking a new era in journalism and in politics. Gouverneur Morris called it "the morning star of liberty that revolutionized America." Zenger's attorney, Andrew Hamilton, the foremost lawyer in America, had argued that truth justifies any attack on rulers, and for his success in court a grateful people presented him in ancient fashion with the freedom of the city in a gold snuff-box.

§ 10. Benjamin Franklin was a Commercial and Political Leader.

From 1730 to 1745 Benjamin Franklin was industriously at work in Philadelphia. He defended freedom of speech and freedom of the press, started the academy which later became the University of Pennsylvania, and began subscription libraries. His great career as a business man, inventor, and statesman was possible only in the largest town of all the colonies, and shows the commercialism, the toleration, and the intellectual progress of the colony, which permitted the development of the first generally useful citizen in all the colonies. Older than George Washington, Benjamin Franklin was later to be recognized as second only to "the Father of his Country" among all Americans of the eighteenth century.

§ 11. Pennsylvania was the Wealthiest of All the Colonies.

Of all the colonies Pennsylvania maintained the best relations with the intellectual wild men of the forests, making treaties with the Indians that were kept upon both sides throughout this period. In wealth the leading citizens of Pennsylvania ranked with the land-owning patroons of New York, the planters of Virginia, and the ship-owners of New England. The colony, in comparison with the others, was the richest, largest, most orderly, and apparently the happiest. Here grew the population that became a wedge to separate the nation into free and slave sections. The Friends and the Moravians of Pennsylvania from the first regarded slavery as sin.


Received from the honorable Thomas and Richard
Penn, Esqrs true and absolute Proprietaries of Pensyl-
vania by the hands of the honorable Sr William Johnson
Baronet the Sum of two thousand Dollars being the
full consideration of the Lands title[d] sold to them by
the Indians of the six Nations at the late Treaty held
at Fort Stanwix We say received this Twenty fifth
day of July in the Year of Our Lord 1769 — for ourselves
and the other Indians of the Six Nations and their confederate
and dependant Tribes for whom we are and by whom
we are appointed and empowered —
Witness present
Nat. Macleod
Thos. Lacey Interp.
Phil. Daly
Analiggoras
Onoghranoron
Onughthony
To the Cayuga Nation
by the desire of the whole
Anaquahoka
Sorrihouna
Abraham for the Mohawks
Johannes Tekarihogea
Jonathan Hagerady Negro
Joseph Thayendanegea Negro
James Sejarawaner
Lodowicke Aghsaintata
Joseph Tagahuaron
Tayuns

Indian Treaty with Penn's Descendants, 1769.

§ 12. The Middle Colonies Learned Self-Government.

Conditions of life in Delaware were similar to those in Pennsylvania, from which it was separated in government in 1703. In New Jersey, still mainly an agricultural colony, there was a peaceful development, scarcely disturbed by the few political discussions between rulers and citizens. The most important event was the union of East and West Jersey as the one colony of New Jersey in 1702. The facts of its history, while not important enough for detailed account, are important in their general nature as a part of that wonderful development of all the colonists in political capacity, which later Edmund Burke, the great English statesman, pronounced in Parliament as the most striking characteristic of the Englishmen across the sea.

3. The Southern Colonies.

§ 13. Georgia was the Last Colony to be Established, 1733.

In 1689 there were three southern colonies, — Maryland, Virginia, and the Carolinas. The Carolinas were in their actual social condition two different communities, North Carolina being agricultural, and South Carolina being largely interested in sea-ventures. As in Virginia the population was thinly distributed in North Carolina, but the land was not, as in Virginia, farmed in large plantations, but rather in small holdings. South Carolina had one important town. Its rice-plantations grew large like the tobacco-plantations of Virginia. Another colony, Georgia, was to be added in 1733, more than fifty years later in its establishment than Pennsylvania. Georgia, indeed, at the time of the Revolution, 1775, was very largely composed of foreign-born citizens.

§ 14. The People of the Southern Colonies were Isolated from One Another.

In the New England colonies there was everywhere a general inter-communication of people and of ideas. So, too, the middle colonies, even in the early part of the eighteenth century, had many mutual associations of families and of interests. But the southern colonies were isolated from each other, a fact due to their waterways, their mode of agriculture, and, in the cases of the Carolinas and Georgia, their late and slow development.

William and Mary College, 1723.

§ 15. Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina were Aristocratic. North Carolina and Georgia were Democratic.

After 1688 Virginia settled down to tobacco-raising and to the development of that social aristocracy to which the nation was later to owe such leaders as Washington, Madison, and Jefferson. Virginia was not, however, wholly aristocratic, for upon a small farm in one of her frontier

counties she was rearing, in the middle of the seventeenth century, Patrick Henry of mixed Welsh and Scotch blood, a man of the people, the greatest orator of the Revolution. Maryland upon Chesapeake Bay and the Potomac River grew like Virginia aristocratic and prosperous. Even as late as the end of this period it contained no commercial town of any size, but was almost wholly devoted to agriculture. But North Carolina was a democratic community of small farmers, far more like New Jersey or New Hampshire than like its neighbors.

§ 16. Immigrations, War, and Migrations Filled the Years with Affairs of Interest.

In 1707 a large number of Huguenots emigrated from France to North Carolina, and in 1709 even larger numbers of Swiss and Germans came over. In 1711–12 was fought a war with the Tuscaroras, an Iroquois tribe, who, after their defeat, moved north to join the Iroquois Five Nations in New York, thus forming the Six Nations, who befriended the English in the terrible French wars of the eighteenth century. This was followed by another addition of Europeans, the Scotch-Irish from the north of Ireland, and the Scotch-Highlanders, from whose descendants was to come Andrew Jackson, the most potent individual in American politics in the democratic national period succeeding that of the aristocratic Virginians. At the end of this colonial period, only Pennsylvania and Virginia exceeded North Carolina in population. It was overcrowding of population that led soon after to the moving of these Carolinians and Virginians across the mountains. Unlike Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina, North Carolina had no great

number of Negro slaves. In this respect and in the general nature of its white population it resembled New Hampshire more than any middle or southern colony.

§ 17. Diversity of Interests Led to a Division of the Carolinas.

In South Carolina rice and indigo culture created a need for the labor of Negroes, who were soon more numerous than the white population, and forced the development of an upper class of the whites. In 1729, disputes in England among the many proprietors, and in America between the proprietors and the colonists, and the difference in the characteristics of the northern and southern sections, caused King George to make the Carolinas into two royal provinces.

§ 18. Oglethorpe was the Philanthropic Founder of Georgia.

The motives that led General James Oglethorpe to found Georgia were of the same unselfish, philanthropic kind that brought the Calverts to Maryland, and William Penn to Pennsylvania; but the later times made a different kind of enterprise necessary. To this man of wealth, reputation, and generosity, King George II granted the tract between the Carolinas and Spanish Florida. Spain did not admit the right of England to the soil, but permitted the sending and establishment of the colony, 1733.

§ 19. Georgia became Discontented Under the Moral Regulations of Oglethorpe, and was Made a Royal Colony.

The founder gathered together debtors from English prisons, victims of religious and political persecution upon the continent of Europe, and poor people, excluding only the unworthy and the ambitionless poor. He brought his

settlers to the Savannah River at great cost to himself, and gave each an allotment of land, rent free, for ten years. Slavery was forbidden, and rum was excluded. But the colonists had no vote, and fretted under the paternal despotism of Oglethorpe. In 1752 because of political disturbances Georgia was made a royal colony. Slaves and rum were admitted, and Georgia began to follow in the path of South Carolina. Savannah became a rival of Charleston as a trading-port. The population, largely English, Scotch, and German, increased so rapidly that the colony soon became valuable as an English outpost against the Spanish settlements in Florida.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. What recompense did the Dutch finally receive for their loss of New Amsterdam?

2. What change is marked in colonial life at the period of the "English Revolution"?

3. Characterize the period in the colonies between the Salem witchcraft delusion and the discovery of the nature of electricity.

4. What may be said of education in the first half of the eighteenth century?

5. What colleges were founded in this period of development?

6. What may be said of law and journalism in these years? Does the rise of these professions suggest changes in the general wealth and culture of the people? What changes?

7. What was "The Great Awakening"? Why was it needed?

8. Who built the first schooner to sail the high seas? What was its influence on America's commerce?

9. What cause led to the failure of the early Massachusetts banks?

10. When was the postal system begun? What were some of its features and results?

11. What is meant by "freedom of the press"? Under what circumstances was it first secured in America?

12. How important in our history was the acquittal of Zenger?

13. Who was the first generally useful citizen in all the colonies? What were some of his early public services?

14. What were the relations of the Pennsylvanians with the Indians?

15. Compare Pennsylvania in the middle of the century and in the middle of the country with the other colonies.

16. What was the opinion of Edmund Burke regarding Americans?

17. Compare North and South Carolina in respect to the people's chief occupation.

18. Compare the northern and middle colonies with the southern in 1700 in respect to the association of the colonists with each other.

19. What southern colonies were chiefly aristocratic? What democratic?

20. What movements of population were there in the first half of the eighteenth century in the southern colonies?

21. In 1754 what were the three colonies with the largest populations?

22. Compare North Carolina with the other colonies.

23. What led to the division of the Carolinas in 1729?

24. Who was the founder of Georgia?

25. What was the history of the colony before the Revolution?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Contemporaries:* Vol. II., pp. 35–103, pp. 110–149, pp. 153–164, pp. 171–181, pp. 188–201, pp. 205–219, pp. 224–271, pp. 276–307.

Thwaites's *Colonies:* Chaps. V., VIII., X., XIII., XIV. Especially XIV.

Morse's *Benjamin Franklin*, pp. 2–58: Rising of a Poor Boy in the Colonial World.

Thorpe's *History of American People:* Chaps. VIII.–IX.

Fiske's *Dutch and Quaker Colonies:* Vol. II.

Thompson's *Hand of God in American History*, Chaps. II.–III.: Racial Elements and Antagonisms.

Bancroft's *History of the United States*, Vol. I., pp. 602–613: Our People in 1688.

Irving's *Knickerbocker History of New York.*

Consult the standard encyclopædias: English Revolution of 1688, Benjamin Franklin, the early colleges, Jonathan Edwards, postal system, James Oglethorpe, colonial histories of the original thirteen states.

Harper's *Encyclopædia of United States History.* Zenger: Franklin: Edwards.

Macdonald's *Select Charters:* Vol. I. Second and Third Charters of Massachusetts; Navigation Act of 1696; Pennsylvania's Charters, etc.; Charter of Georgia.

Smith-Dutton *Colonies:* Colonial Life.

ADDITIONAL TOPICS FOR INQUIRY AND DISCUSSION.

1. King William III, our first Constitutional Monarch.

2. The Continuance in England of the Witchcraft Delusion forty years longer than in America, and the Survival to Modern Times of Superstitions regarding the "evil eye."

3. Franklin's Discovery of the Nature of Electricity.

4. Latin and the Other Studies of the Early Colleges: a Comparison of the Eighteenth Century Colleges with Twentieth Century High Schools and Colleges; Ages of Students in College.

5. Early Schools.

6. The First Newspapers.

7. Zenger's Trial.

8. The Schooner: its Characteristics, its Usefulness.

9. Whaling.

10. The West Indian Trade.

11. Paper Currency in the Eighteenth Century.

12. Letter-writing and the Post.

13. Indian Treaties.

14. The Separation of Pennsylvania and Delaware.

15. The Union of East and West Jersey.

16. The Separation of the Carolinas.

17. In 1750 one-fifth of all the colonists spoke little or no English; one-quarter were Negroes; scarcely one-half were from England by birth or family. Find where the English, the French, the Scotch-Irish, the Scotch, the Welsh, the Germans, the Finns, the Negroes, were living.

18. The Other English Colonies in North America.

19. The War with the Tuscaroras.

20. Oglethorpe as a Philanthropist; as Governor and Proprietor.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1688–9. English Revolution.

1693. The second college is founded in America.

1722. The first successful newspaper is established.

1733. Georgia, the last colony, is founded.

1735. Freedom of the press is secured.

CHAPTER V.

THE COLONIES AND THE EUROPEAN WARS.

§ 1. The French Established Forts and Settlements in the Mississippi Valley.

WHILE the English were establishing Virginia, Massachusetts Bay, Pennsylvania, and the other colonies, the Spanish were maintaining their settlements at St. Augustine and Santa Fé, and extending their missions in the region that we now call the Southwest and Southern Pacific sections of our land. The French, too, were active, but were confining their energies chiefly to Canada. In 1682 the great explorer La Salle had established a fort at Kaskaskia upon the Mississippi River above its confluence with the Missouri River. This was colonized in 1695. In 1701 the French founded a settlement at Detroit, and another at Mobile more than a thousand miles away. Already in 1699 they had established a settlement at Biloxi on the Gulf of Mexico near the mouth of the Mississippi. The French then undertook to establish and maintain a line of forts and settlements from Quebec to Biloxi along the great waterways.

The French Forts and Settlements.

§ 2. Bankruptcy Retarded Colonial Progress.

In 1718 the French established New Orleans, and made great plans for its immediate future. Unfortunately, just at this time John Law, an English adventurer in France, secured the favor of the Duke of Orleans, regent during the youth of Louis XV, and organized a great company to colonize Louisiana, and to develop its natural resources. This company, called first the Mississippi Company, and later the Company of the Indies, undertook to pay the immense national debt of France. It soon collapsed. Its bankruptcy retarded the progress of the French schemes in the Mississippi valley. However, Fort Chartres was built in 1720, and Vincennes was fortified and colonized in 1735.

Farther north and east many forts were planned, and some were built. Among these the most important were Fort Frontenac, Fort Oswego and Fort Niagara, which together commanded Lake Ontario. With these and all other fortified places France meant to hold the interior of the continent against England.

A. French and English Wars.

1. *King William's War — 1689–97.*

§ 3. War was Waged in the Old World and in the New.

King Louis XIV of France, "The Grand Monarch," said often, "*l'Etat, c'est moi!*" "The State, 'tis I!" He was both tyrant and statesman, and desired above all things to extend his empire. He hated especially King William III of England, who was also ruler in Holland. Louis did not like his views either in religion or in government,

and wished to conquer England and Holland. William was grandson of that Queen Mary for whom Maryland is named, and a descendant of that William the Silent whose life was one long, magnificent struggle for his people's liberty. His family had made Holland a refuge for the oppressed. Thither the Pilgrims had fled in 1608. Every tyrant in Europe hated Holland. The great Louis sent to Governor Frontenac, in Canada, orders to invade and conquer the colony of New York. Frontenac was defeated by the Iroquois on the northern borders of the colony, but had his revenge in burning Schenectady in 1690, when his Indian allies, the Hurons, massacred the inhabitants. Later the English commander, Sir William Phips, took Port Royal in Nova Scotia, but failed in an expedition against Quebec. By the treaty which ended the war, Port Royal was returned to France, 1697.

2. *Queen Anne's War — 1702–13.*

§ 4. England Gained Territory in a Second War.

After the death of William III of England, 1702, King, Louis continued to plot against England and Holland. While the brilliant English general Marlborough was fighting in Europe for Queen Anne against King Louis, the Indian allies of France in America devastated several Maine settlements, and burned Deerfield in Massachusetts. As in King William's War, there were sea-expeditions also, when Port Royal was again taken, and another expedition against Quebec failed. By the treaty that ended this war, England, because of Marlborough's great victories, kept both Nova Scotia and Hudson's Bay, reducing somewhat the French territory in America.

B. Spanish and English War — *1739–42.*

§ 5. England and Spain Fought Regarding Trade.

In the eighteenth century, as in the seventeenth, each nation forbade its colonists to trade with merchants of any other nation, and tried to shut out all foreign traders from colonial ports. England wished to trade with the Spanish colonies in America, and began a war to accomplish that purpose. In the course of this war the Spaniards invaded the English colony of Georgia, but were defeated and driven out by Oglethorpe. The result of the war did not remove the commercial restrictions. This was a severe blow to the ambitions of American ship-owners.

A. French and English Wars.

3. *King George's War — 1744–48.*

§ 6. At the Siege of Louisburg the Colonists Learned European Methods of Warfare.

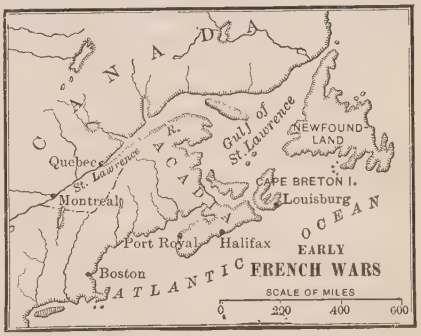
The next great war began in America, with a very exciting military and naval adventure. The cause of the war was the old jealousy and rivalry between England and France. The strongest fortress in the New World was Louisburg, upon which the French had spent vast amounts of money and labor. Some enterprising English colonists proposed to

Louisburg, 1745.

capture it, and partly by their great energy, and partly by good luck, succeeded in 1745. King George of England made one of the leaders, Pepperell, a baronet, and another, Shirley, governor of Massachusetts, in honor of their exploit. By the treaty which ended the war Louisburg was given back to France, greatly to the indignation of all the colonies. The expedition had brought together soldiers from several different colonies, who learned to respect and enjoy each other; and the success showed them that even raw colonial troops could overcome trained European soldiers. Not a few of the men who learned how to fight at Louisburg, fought afterwards at Bunker Hill.

§ 7. Colonial Loyalty to England was Chilled.

The surrenders of Port Royal in 1697 and of Louisburg in 1748 by treaty did much to alienate the colonists from England and to separate the colonies in Canada from those south of Canada. Until 1748 England and the American colonies alike looked upon Canada and the Carolinas as equally dear to the mother-country. England's indifference to the desires of the southern American colonies to retain the fruits of their victories in Nova Scotia chilled the loyal enthusiasm of many colonists. The treaties and the discontent that they caused were symptoms of the growing separation between the colonies and the mother-country,



which was indeed only a foster mother to nearly half of the colonists. England had become a world-power. The colonies were becoming independent in spirit, with a desire for recognition of their importance.

General William Pepperell at Louisburg.

4. *French and Indian War — 1754–1763.*

§ 8. The Seven Years' War in Europe Involved America.

In their results in America, all the preceding wars were unimportant in comparison with the great war that determined whether England or France should hold North America. This war is called the French and Indian War in America. However, it was but a part of the great Seven Years' War in Europe, in which Prussia and England fought France, Spain, Austria, and Russia. Its American name is due to the alliance between the French and most of the Indians against the English, though this alliance had been continuous since the first Europeans came to this country.

§ 9. French Soldiers and Fur-traders Held the Interior of this Continent.

The Iroquois Indians had held a great region south of Lake Ontario, and dominated an even greater area, from the Hudson River to the Miami. Hitherto they had kept the French out of all this territory, but France already controlled the two great waterways, the St. Lawrence, from Lake Superior to the Atlantic Ocean, and the Mississippi, from its source to the Gulf of Mexico. The French were few in numbers compared with the English, but were far more active in trying to extend their province. In all North America there were scarcely fifteen thousand French people. The French soldiers and government officers were supported in America by supplies from the French monarch; the development of their region in agriculture and in industry was slight. The fur-trade only was profitable. On the other hand, the English colonies were self-supporting, and very successful in agriculture, industry, and commerce. Their numbers in 1750 were more than a million and a half.

§ 10. George Washington Fired the First Gun in a Great War.

The French set their hearts upon securing the entire Ohio valley. The English colonials viewed this ambition with alarm, for their numbers were already large, and they foresaw the future need of more land for farming and timber. In 1748 the Ohio Company was formed to colonize the Ohio valley, and surveyors were sent out who went as far west as the site of Louisville, Kentucky. The French took alarm, strengthened their outposts, and built new forts near the headwaters of the Ohio. In 1753, Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia, in reply, sent George Washington,

an officer of the colonial militia, to request the French to withdraw. Although very young, Washington had as a surveyor much experience in the backwoods of Virginia. His expedition was fruitless, for the French intended to stay. In 1754 the English and French met at the junction of the Monongahela and Alleghany Rivers, the gateway to the West, and in the encounter the English were driven back. The French then built Fort Duquesne. George Washington

The French and Indian War.

led a small expedition to drive them away, and was successful in an engagement in which he fired the first shot in the great war. To avenge the death of Jumonville in this fight, a body of seven hundred French soldiers was sent under De Villiers, who compelled Washington to retire. Upon the route of his retreat he built Fort Necessity, and there was compelled, July 4, 1754, to surrender to the French and Indians, who numbered twice his force.

§ 11. Braddock Led a Great Expedition.

In the next year, 1755, England sent out General Braddock with two regiments of regular troops. Braddock was one of England's finest colonels, and an expert manager of men. Before leaving for America, he wrote to his friends that English regulars could not succeed in war under such new conditions. Like a true soldier, he came hither in obedience to orders. He showed his good judgment in adding to his staff the young soldier, George Washington, and by consulting that wide-awake business man, Benjamin Franklin. Then he set out in full regalia, and with all the military precautions that the science and practice of war had taught him. He failed because he and his soldiers were martinets, not marksmen.

§ 12. The English Suffered a Terrible Defeat near Fort Duquesne.

Very near Fort Duquesne the expedition was marching with some thirteen hundred men in regular line along the path with flankers out upon each side a hundred and fifty yards, breaking their way through the woods, when a solid mass of a thousand French and Indians was suddenly met just in front. The English attacked with artillery, and the French gave way while the Indians scattered to the woods.

The English charged up the path, and the Indians fired upon them from among the trees. The English were amazed, for they could not see their Indian enemies. With broken ranks they retreated. Braddock and Washington then came up to join the advance party. Washington advised another charge against the French in front, but Braddock preferred to call in his flankers, and to form a battle line as best he could. Meantime the French, who

numbered but a little more than two hundred men, had directed the Indians, six hundred in number, to rush forward with savage yells through the woods and ravines, while the French themselves charged upon the English vanguard. Before the fury of the French charge, even though terrified by the fearful shrieks of the New World's wild men, shooting from the woods their silent, fatal arrows, the English regulars stood firm. But they did not know how to shoot, each man with good aim, nor did they know how to retreat face to the front. They thought it cowardice to hide behind trees. There Braddock died, after a brave fight. There died, too, the French leader De Beaujeu. Washington fought like a hero in the thick of the battle, but, despite all his efforts, the defeat was overwhelming. Even the colonials ran from the pursuing savages of the forests.

Braddock's campaign spread dismay among the colonists. Braddock was a martyr to the inflexible militarism of Europe that has sent thousands of other brave men likewise to their death.

§ 13. England Helped Prussia by Compelling France to Send Soldiers to America.

At Crown Point the English were successful. They won Acadia also, and exiled the colonists, sending some as far away as Louisiana. It was at this stage that war was formally declared. The greatest figure of the war was Frederick the Great of Prussia, whose cause England was assisting. England, by compelling France to send many soldiers to America, prevented France from giving much assistance to her allies, Austria and Prussia.

§ 14. The Indians Played an Important Part in the War.

In 1755, Sir William Johnson, an Irish land-owner and fur-trader of the Mohawk valley, with the help of the Iroquois, defeated the French at Lake George. He had acquired great influence with the Iroquois Six Nations by marrying a clever Indian woman. He built Fort William Henry to protect the Hudson valley. The French then fortified Ticonderoga. In 1756, Montcalm captured Oswego, and acquired control of Lake Ontario. In the next year, 1757, he captured Fort William Henry; but his military triumph was marred by a terrible outrage on the part of his Indian allies, chiefly the Hurons, who, against his protests, massacred the English garrison after their surrender.

§ 15. The French Under Montcalm Won at Ticonderoga.

In the summer of 1758 General Abercrombie with fifteen thousand soldiers, English and colonial, attacked Ticonderoga, which was successfully held by the French under General Montcalm with but four thousand soldiers. In this battle the magnificent British regulars were led again and again to useless assaults upon the French fortifications. We shall hear of the splendid but unavailing courage of the English soldiers at Bunker Hill in 1775 and of the Scotch Highlanders at New Orleans, 1815. Ticonderoga was by far the greatest battle on American soil up to that time. The English disaster included the death of Lord Augustus Howe, a brilliant soldier. If Howe had not been killed at Ticonderoga, and Wolfe later at Quebec, the war for American independence would have seen far better commanders than William Howe, Burgoyne, Clinton, and Cornwallis on the English side.

The French Fort at Oswego.

§ 16. The English Gained Ticonderoga, Duquesne, and Louisburg.

But the defeat of the English at Ticonderoga did not end the war. The next period saw not French but English victories. Lord Amherst was able to take Ticonderoga after Montcalm had gone into the northwest to pursue the French interests there. In 1758, General Forbes by masterly strategy, with the assistance of Washington's ever-increasing military skill, was able to compel the French to abandon Fort Duquesne, which he renamed Fort Pitt. General Wolfe laid siege to Louisburg, which, though almost perfectly built and well garrisoned, he took by assault, assisted by fire from English war-vessels.

§ 17. Wolfe Met Montcalm at Quebec.

In 1759 the crisis was reached. Montcalm held Quebec, and Wolfe laid siege to it without result. The town seemed impregnable to assault. Above the city rose the Heights of Abraham; within were the disciplined soldiers of France, under their brave and skilful commander. At last Wolfe heard of a path from the bank of the St. Lawrence River that led up to the Heights of Abraham. Was the path faithfully guarded by the French? Could he transport a sufficient number of his troops up the river past the French sentries, and marshal them upon the Plains of Abraham before the dawn broke? He resolved to try.

The French watchword for the night was known to a Scotch soldier who spoke French perfectly. When challenged as the boats passed the sentries, he answered with the watchword. The first men reached the path, and began to climb up the gorge where a faithful guard could have

held back an army of ten thousand men. Of the hundred French soldiers assigned there, all were either away on leave of absence, or asleep, as was the unfortunate captain whose faithlessness cost his life. But the surprise of the sleeping sentries at midnight was not greater than that of all Quebec when, as the morning's fog lifted, they saw nearly four thousand English soldiers in battle line upon the Plains of Abraham. Without waiting for re-enforcements, and hoping to repeat the success at Ticonderoga, Montcalm formed his army in battle line and charged upon the English. The impetuous charge was in vain against the solid

Death of Géneral Wolfe.

ranks of the English regulars. They were never defeated in the shock of open conflict. They charged in turn and drove the French and Canadians before them. Quebec was doomed, and with its fall there fell also French dominion

in the New World. In this great battle Wolfe, the splendid English general, and Montcalm, the brilliant French leader, died in their early manhood.

§ 18. By the Treaty of 1763 England Gained All the Lands of France and Spain East of the Mississippi, and Spain Took All the Lands West.

The treaty of peace, 1763, dealt very radically with American territory. It placed England in possession of all Canada and of all the lands east of the Mississippi, including even Spanish Florida, and gave to Spain all the French territory west of the Mississippi.

Conspiracy of Pontiac.

§ 19. The Defeat of the French Led to a War of the English with the Indians.

The replacing of French by English garrisons throughout the region south of the Great Lakes was not without certain logical results, for the British were less successful in their relations with the Indians than were the French. One result was an Indian uprising. In 1763 Pontiac, chief of the Ojibways, formed an alliance with the Ottawas and Pottawottamies, in the country about the Great Lakes, and killed or dispersed by sudden attack the English garrisons in the eight forts of that region. He then laid siege to Detroit, getting supplies from the Canadians.

§ 20. Pontiac was Slain by a Revengeful Illinois Indian.

Though in the end unsuccessful, 1766, this conspiracy showed the colonials the great difficulties in store for them in trying to take possession of the splendid agricultural

country beyond the Ohio. Pontiac, whose plans were those of a statesman, was himself murdered by an Illinois Indian in 1769. He saw that the French came as traders, but the English as settlers. The French made Indian life pleasant and comfortable; the English made Indian life impossible, for they turned the wilderness into farms. What Pontiac could not see was the fact that the Indians were incapable of sufficient loyalty to the idea of living, working, and fighting together to make their combined resistance to the English advance successful.

Pontiac Addressing an Indian Council of War.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. In what region were the Spanish especially active in the period after 1565?

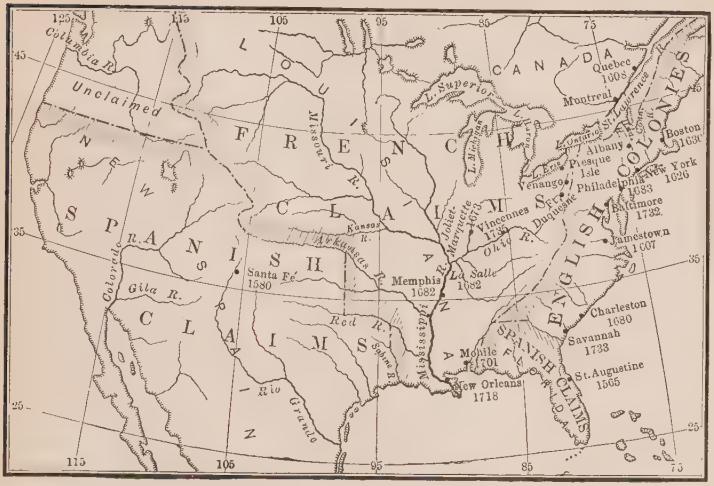
2. What region of the present United States did the French wish to secure? What means were they taking to secure it?

3. What great company undertook the colonization of Louisiana? With what results?

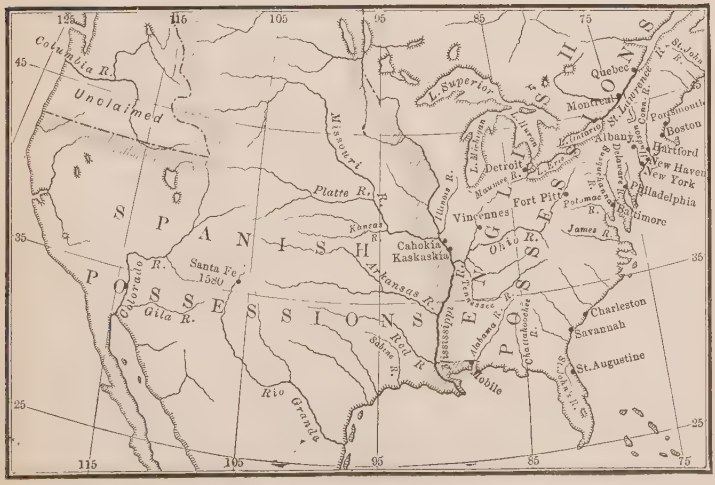
4. Name and locate some of the important forts and settlements made by the French.

5. What European monarchs were engaged in King William's War? What were the ideas that caused their struggle against each other?

6. Give a brief account of the war.



Before the French and Indian War.



After the French and Indian War.

7. Give a brief account of Queen Anne's War.

8. What part did the Indians take in King William's War, and in Queen Anne's War?

9. What caused the Spanish and English War of 1739–42?

10. Give an account of King George's War.

11. What was the influence of this war upon the colonists as soldiers?

12. What was the effect of the terms of the treaty that closed this war?

13. What was the Seven Years' War in Europe, and how did it affect American history?

14. Compare the number of the French in America with the number of the English in 1754.

15. How were the French supported in America?

16. What was the purpose of the Ohio Company? In what way did this purpose conflict with that of the French?

17. Upon what errand was George Washington sent in 1754?

18. Give an account of Braddock's defeat.

19. Where were the English successful in the earliest years of the war?

20. What success did the French have at Fort William Henry? at Fort Oswego?

21. Describe briefly the battle at Ticonderoga.

22. Divide the various incidents of the French and Indian War into four periods, setting in the third period the successes of Amherst, Forbes, and Wolfe. Give an account of this period to the siege of Quebec.

23. Give a brief account of the victory at Quebec.

24. In what battles were Augustus Howe, Montcalm, and Wolfe killed? Is it likely that their deaths in any way affected later American history?

25. What was the result of the treaty of 1763?

26. What was the immediate cause of the conspiracy of Pontiac?

27. Why did it fail?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Contemporaries:* Vol. II., Chap. XIX. (pp. 337–351); Chap. XX. (pp. 360–372): Wars.

Bancroft's *History of the United States*, Part III., Chaps. IX., X., XI., XIV.: The French; (Vol. II., pp. 137–191, pp. 224–237); Chaps. XII. XVII. (pp. 192–211): The Spanish War; Vol. II., pp. 360–366: The

Ohio Company; pp. 377–388, pp. 419–453, pp. 459–467, pp. 487–512: French and Indian War.

Thorpe's *History of the American People*, pp. 109–123: The French Wars, p. 133: Pontiac.

Parkman's *Frontenac: Wolfe and Montcalm: Pontiac.*

Hart's *Formation of the Union*, Chap. II.: The Wars.

Brady's *Colonial Fights and Fighters*, Parts III. and IV.: The Battles.

Sparks's *Expansion of the American People*, Chap. VI.: The French-English Struggle.

Hosmer's *History of the Mississippi Valley*, pp. 51–58: French: Indians.

Brooks's *Dames and Daughters of Colonial Days:* Frances La Tour, a French heroine.

Consult the standard encyclopedias: John Law and the Mississippi Company, Frontenac, Louis XIV of France, Frederick the Great, William Pitt.

All the biographers of Washington deal with the early wars. See Irving, Wilson, Lodge.

Consult standard English histories for William III, leader of Protestantism, and Louis XIV, leader of Catholicism.

NOTE. — The subject of the five wars, 1689–1763, is so inextricably connected with European history that time fails the teacher. The important principle is this: The colonists in America were Europeans abroad. The center of history even here was European. The causes of a war and its scenes are often geographically far apart.

ADDITIONAL TOPICS FOR INQUIRY OR DISCUSSION.

1. The Story of Kaskaskia.
2. John Law: Promoter, Speculator, Adventurer.
3. Histories of: New Orleans, Detroit, Oswego, Niagara, Ticonderoga, Quebec, Louisburg, Port Royal, Pittsburg.
4. The Hanoverian Line: Anne, George I, George II, George III.
5. William III of England: Louis XIV.
6. William Pepperell: William Shirley.
7. The Elder Pitt: Frederick the Great.
8. The Ohio Company.
9. George Washington, Frontiersman.
10. The Feud between the Hurons and the Iroquois.
11. Montcalm: Wolfe.
12. Pontiac.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1682. Founding of Philadelphia.
1682. Fort Kaskaskia is built.
1689–97. King William's War.
1699. Founding of Biloxi.
1701. Founding of Detroit.
1702–13. Queen Anne's War.
1718. Founding of New Orleans.
1735. Founding of Vincennes.
1739–42. Spanish-English War.
1744–8. King George's War.
1754–63. French and Indian War.
1755. Braddock is defeated near Fort Duquesne.
1758. Abercrombie is defeated at Fort Ticonderoga.
1758. Forbes wins a victory at Fort Duquesne.
1759. Amherst gains Fort Ticonderoga.
1759. Fall of Quebec.
1763–6. Conspiracy of Pontiac.

SPECIAL EXERCISE.

To this point the class has traversed seven quarter-centuries of colonial history. An interesting and profitable class-exercise may be carried out by placing upon the blackboard accounts of our history by quarter-centuries, somewhat as follows : viz., —

THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

1st Quarter. 1601–1625.	2d Quarter. 1626–1650.	3d Quarter. 1651–1675.	4th Quarter. 1676–1700.
1607 Jamestown,	1628 Salem,	1663 North Carolina,	1682 Philadelphia,
1620 Plymouth,	1636 Providence,	1664 New York,	1692 Witchcraft delusion,
etc.	etc.	etc.	etc.

As many dates may be used and as full statements may be made as may seem desirable.

All the benefit from such chronological schemes comes from making them. It is seldom profitable to try directly to memorize dates. We learn such facts best by using them.

CHAPTER VI.

DEVELOPMENT OF AMERICAN IDEAS.

§ 1. The Colonists Did Not Believe in Freedom and Equality.

To this day it has not been possible for historians to learn of the true and important facts regarding the wonderful backwoods life of America, beyond the ever-advancing frontiers of civilization. Nor has it been possible to learn much about the life of the underworld of the unfranchised poor, of the slaves and of the bondmen in the settled colonies. Until long after the War of Independence many human beings had not the modern rights of men. Nowhere did the colonials believe in the equality of all men and in the sacredness of the personal life. In 1738 the Negroes of South Carolina arose in insurrection, but were beaten down; these Negroes were most of them from the vigorous tribes of Africa, and could not willingly endure the terrible labors and fevers of the rice swamps. Laws existed in all the colonies against slaves and bond-servants who fled to the freedom of the wilderness, but these laws were least severe in Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Pennsylvania.

In New York City there suddenly developed in 1741, an insane fear of the Negroes that resulted in the execution of fifty-six Negroes and white bond-servants for an alleged plot against life and property. From this date slavery and servitude declined rapidly in the colony. The history of human progress in America records as its most important facts, the steps in the gradual deliverance of our people from the inequality, the ignorance, and the iniquity that, in Europe, made the few the masters of the many.

§ 2. The Opportunities of the New World Helped the Poor and the Wretched, and Especially Their Children.

All society in the different colonies was in a state of ferment and agitation. The children of the convicted murderers, who had been sold into the colonies by the home government instead of being hanged at home, and the children of Old World schoolmasters, so poor that they sold themselves into bondage for a term of years to pay their passage across the ocean, founded families that came to rank with those of the best blood of England. Opportunity met the colonials at every hand, but hardship and difficulty were the never remitted costs of success.

§ 3. An Immense Increase of Population Followed the Victory at Quebec.

To a people in this condition, the victory of England at Quebec, 1759, brought a new era, as the facts of population show. The colonies grew in population from one million six hundred thousand in 1760, to two million six hundred thousand in 1775. This gain was partly from new immigration, but mainly from the natural increase of a prosperous population. The success of England in war had relieved the colonies from the pressure of France upon the North and West, and of Spain upon the South, and somewhat from the pressure of the Indians at all points. Singular as it may seem, it was colonial prosperity rather than adversity, that brought the American people, in 1775, into conflict with England. It usually happens that prosperity emboldens while adversity crushes the spirit. In this same period class distinctions were rapidly disappearing, for the poor were becoming well-to-do and free.

§ 4. Many People Moved West.

After the defeat of Pontiac, the westward movement of our population became more extensive. In early colonial times the settlers clung to the seacoast. Only the braver spirits dared to push great distances into the wilderness. The migration of Hooker with his congregation from Massachusetts Bay to Connecticut, 1636, was an example followed by few others. But after 1766 the western-moving tide began to flow and is only now ceasing.

§ 5. The Migration in the South was Large.

Among the last colonies to be established were the Carolinas and Georgia. Even in the years 1660–1734, people were beginning to move out of Virginia, where large plantations were formed by combination of smaller ones. North Carolina was constantly receiving new families from Virginia and South Carolina, the two aristocratic southern colonies. The political and social changes in Georgia made the people restless there. As soon as the Indians became comparatively quiet, these restless families of the South began to move across the mountains into the valleys of the Ohio, Tennessee, and Cumberland. This region was called "the land of the western waters" because its rivers flowed west to the Mississippi, rather than east to the Atlantic.

§ 6. Daniel Boone was a Leader in the Western Migration.

It was after the battle of Alamance, 1771, in North Carolina, where the tyrannical governor, Tryon, defeated the rebels who believed in just laws, that the western movement became decided. Some people of Scotch-Irish and Huguenot blood preferred the dangerous liberty of the

wilderness to the unjust peace of the settled country. By 1775 Daniel Boone had established Boonesboro in Kentucky; this was the very year of Lexington and Concord, when the gun of the Massachusetts minute-man "fired the shot heard round the world." During the years of the Revolution, the migration continued until Kentucky and Tennessee had many well-established towns and villages.

§ 7. Kentucky and Tennessee were Settled Amid Perils. This settlement beyond the mountains cost many lives.

Sometimes whole villages were destroyed by the Indians. Harvests were usually reaped by men with guns slung upon their backs. In perils and hardships the story of the settlement of the western country recounts deeds of heroism not less than those of the early days of Virginia and New England. In the great forests, miles away from neighbors, one, two, or three families made their clearings, built their cabins, planted their fields and gardens, and reared their children. Here began the true pioneering in the great wilderness, out of which the peculiar American character has

grown, with ideas, affections, and ambitions not colored by European traditions. Here men learned independence and self-reliance in isolation from even the limited advantages of the Atlantic seacoast towns. Here grew the stock from which early in the nineteenth century Abraham Lincoln came.

A Log-Cabin in the Wilderness.

§ 8. American Ideas Develop.

Along the seacoast there was a similar though less rapid development of those peculiar ideas which constitute Americanism, but which even yet are not perfectly realized. In the history of all peoples, the sea-going folk and the mountaineers have been lovers of freedom and justice. They have stood for personal independence and equal opportunity for all. Storm and solitude at sea, close comradeship, sight of foreign lands and people, — these, like the silence of the forest and the wilderness friendships with but few companions, make men daring, patient, self-reliant, equal, and free. The Atlantic seacoast was the first, while the Appalachian hill-country was the second, scene upon which was developed slowly, but securely, our Americanism.

§ 9. English America of 1775 Equaled Old England of 1588.

In 1760 Virginia alone had 500,000 people, and Massachusetts 300,000. In New York City were 15,000 people. In 1775 there was in all the colonies, upon the seacoast and in the backwoods, a population nearly equal to that of England in the glorious days of Queen Elizabeth and William Shakespeare, and to that of New York City in 1900. So rapid a growth showed the industry of the people and their vigorous spirit in the freedom of American life. The lumber of the magnificent forests and the crops of the fertile lands were making them rich. But they knew almost nothing of the coal, iron, and petroleum underground. And their surprising progress was realized in the face of needless difficulties deliberately produced by the laws of the home-government that forbade manufactures and seriously limited commerce upon the high seas. If the colonists had been perfectly free, as all well-disposed people who love their neighbors ought to be, the population and the wealth would have increased even faster.

§ 10. The Colonies were Governed in One General Way.

In 1775 there prevailed one general type of government in all the colonies. There was a governor at the head. There was a colonial legislature. There was a council of varied duties: advisory to the governor, judicial in relation to the courts, and legislative. There was the ballot, though the right to vote was not universal. It is commonly said that this general type took three or four modified forms. New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia were royal colonies. Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland were proprietary

colonies. Connecticut and Rhode Island were charter colonies. Massachusetts was both a charter and a royal colony. In the royal colonies the governor was appointed by the king, and could veto colonial legislation if he cared to risk losing his salary for the year. In proprietary colonies the governor was appointed by the proprietors. The charter colonies could appoint their own governors, and their rights were guaranteed. Massachusetts had a royal governor, limited in his powers by a charter. In theory, there was the greatest freedom in charter colonies, and least in proprietary. In fact, they were generally quite as free in the proprietary as in the royal colonies, and all the colonies had far more freedom than was formally granted by their governments. From this grew their desire for independence.

§ 11. In Local Affairs there were Differences in Government, North and South.

In the various colonies the really important differences in government had to do not with the general but with the local affairs. In New England the town-meeting was all-powerful. Every town was a little republic. The town-meeting began at Plymouth in 1620, and continues in New England and elsewhere to this day. It is the school of American political liberty and equality. In the Southern Colonies local affairs were managed by officers for the counties. These officers were appointed by the governors. The laws they enforced, however, were made by the legislatures, and the men themselves were generally the leading citizens of their counties. The town-meeting was not well adapted to the needs of the thinly settled colonies. In the Middle Colonies there prevailed forms of local government

embracing features both of the town of New England and of the county of the South. This mixed type is to-day predominant in all our States, for large populations cannot be governed well by either town-meetings or county boards. Getting all the people together in a vast convention is impossible in a great city. Modern local government is extremely complicated. It is an effort in the presence of the necessities of modern city life to combine the good features of the mass democracy of the town-meeting of New England, New York, and New Jersey, and of the select republicanism of the county of Virginia and the Carolinas.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. Have we thorough means of learning about the lives of the frontier people of 1760?
2. Were the Negroes willing victims of slavery?
3. Were the children of the immigrants more free and prosperous than they?
4. How did the victory at Quebec affect the colonies?
5. What led to the gradual disappearance of class distinctions?
6. Were the people generally willing to go into the wilderness before the defeat of Pontiac?
7. What changes in Virginia led to western migrations?
8. What troubles in North Carolina contributed to these migrations?
9. Who was the leader of the frontiersmen in Kentucky?
10. Describe wilderness life.
11. What qualities of character were developed in the backwoods?
12. What qualities were developed in American sailors?
13. Compare the population of the colonies in 1775 with that of England in 1588.
14. Were the colonists free to earn their livings as they chose?
15. Describe the general government of the English colonies.
16. Explain the various forms of this government.
17. Discuss the town-meeting and the county types of local government.

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Contemporaries:* Vol. II., pp. 55–64, pp. 74–89, pp. 99–1754, pp. 116–126, pp. 141–311: Manners of Colonial Society: Slavery and Servitude: Government.

Hart's *Source Book*, pp. 108–136: Conditions of Colonial Life.

Fiske's *Dutch and Quaker Colonies:* Vol. II.

Harper's *Encyclopædia of United States History:* New York: Slavery.

Earle's *Home Life in Colonial Days.*

Consult standard encyclopædias: Slavery, Tennessee, Kentucky, Boone.

Roosevelt's *Winning of the West:* Vol. I.

McLaughlin's *American Nation*, Chap. VII.: Social, industrial, and political conditions in 1760.

Bancroft's *History of the United States:* Vol. II., pp. 513–561.

Channing's *History of the United States*, pp. 140–151: Slavery: Education.

Hosmer's *History of the Mississippi Valley.*

TOPICS FOR INQUIRY OR DISCUSSION.

1. The Negro Insurrection in South Carolina, 1738.
2. The Negro "Plot" in New York, 1741, and the Resultant Decline of Slavery in the North.
3. The Western Migration and Frontier Life.
4. Daniel Boone.
5. The Scotch-Irish in the Appalachians.
6. Colonial Life in: Boston; New York; Philadelphia; Charleston; between 1700 and 1775.
7. The Colonial Sailors.
8. The Prohibition of Manufacturing and the Result in Massachusetts
9. The Town-meeting in the North a Century Ago: Nowadays.
10. The County in the South.

See Bibliography in Appendix.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1733. The last colony, Georgia, is established.
1741. The negro "plot" in New York.
1759. Quebec falls.
1763–6. Conspiracy of Pontiac.
1771. The rebel colonists are defeated in North Carolina.
1775. Daniel Boone establishes Boonesboro in Kentucky.
1775. The battle of Lexington begins the Revolutionary War.

CHAPTER VII.

COLONIAL UNION.

§ 1. The New England Confederacy Lasted Forty Years.

THE first step toward colonial union was taken in 1643, when the colonies of Massachusetts Bay, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven entered into a confederation "for mutual help and strength in all our future concernments," as they said in the quaint phrasing of their times. This confederacy proved very helpful against the Dutch and the Indians, though it was confined entirely to New England and lasted but forty years. There were, indeed, too many forces that tended toward colonial disunion, to permit of general and successful federation for a century to come.

§ 2. By Delaying Union Our Country Became a Federal State.

This great difference in custom and sentiment between the colonies was very fortunate for our own best national development, for if, in those days of but few settlers, a single government had been established, the War for Independence would have found no colonies to make into a nation of united States, harmonious in spirit, but various in character and ambition. Instead, we might have become a solid nation with one central government controlling us from the Capital city, even in our local affairs, as Paris to-day controls France. This would have been a great misfortune, for so vast a country as ours needs not only a national government but separate State governments as well. As it is, we have a federal government, — that is, a nation made by the union of more or less subordinate States, each of which in most respects has entire control of its local affairs.

§ 3. Many Forces Tended to Keep the Colonies Separate.

The forces that made for colonial disunion included the governments of the various different colonies with their different charters, proprietors, and governors. Political ambitions kept the great men from desiring union. Transportation was so difficult by land, especially in winter and spring, that no government, unless as in Europe it was the outcome of centuries of habitual and usually despotic rule, and that based on force of arms, could govern its citizens at any great distance from the center. All the large towns were near the ocean, or upon waterways leading to the ocean, until long after independence had been secured.

There was little trade between the seaports, for all of them had much the same commodities to sell, and the merchants sent their cargoes to other lands. The people of the various colonies saw very little of each other. George Washington was almost the first American who was known personally by the people of half-a-dozen different colonies. The English government encouraged colonial isolation by prohibiting intercolonial trade in various articles. Nature, too, conspired to further the differences between the colonies, for the climate of New Hampshire was as unlike that of the Carolinas as the climate of Sweden is unlike that of Italy. The people had to fit themselves in dress and occupation for very different modes of life. Again, the colonists were of many different nations and languages, and in the days of long ago all foreigners were mutual enemies. This was especially true of the poor and the ignorant, whose monarchs thought hatred made good soldiers. And, too, the colonists were all very busy with their immediate personal affairs, and had little time for intercolonial travel.

§ 4. Northern, Middle, and Southern Colonies were Divided Regarding the Wisdom and Righteousness of Negro Slavery.

It was not profitable to keep Negro slaves in Massachusetts, where the winters are long and the summers short, for slave labor is of little use in any indoor industry or in seafaring enterprises. But the profit upon slave labor in the Virginia tobacco-fields and in the Carolina rice-swamps was very great. Still another force tended to keep the colonies apart. In New York and Pennsylvania were many Dutch and German people who for a long time determined the language spoken in large districts. Very few of these ever kept slaves. The English and Germans in Pennsylvania did not believe in Negro slavery, and thus formed a great region between the northern colonies in which household slavery, already on the decline, was the only form of slavery that ever existed to any extent, and the southern colonies, in which agricultural slavery was steadily on the increase. Nearly one-third of all the population in America were slaves or bond servants; and it was unsafe for the masters to sojourn long from home. This discouraged travel, which builds sectional sympathies upon friendships.

§ 5. Several Forces Tended to Colonial Union.

Of the three great forces for colonial union, the first was the presence everywhere of the Indians. Military necessity tended to unite the colonies. The second force was far greater, and though it never quite overcame the desire for colonial separateness, it was strong enough to produce, in 1774, a true union for the purpose of a general government. This great force, exhibiting itself even in New York after 1664, was the English political spirit, present and active in

all the colonists of that race. The English, whether in England or in America, believed in self-government, in the rights of the people to make their own laws, to levy their own taxes, to choose their own rulers, to decide upon war and peace, to worship God without interference by government, to speak and to print freely what they pleased, to trade wherever they chose, to sue and to be sued in impartial courts of justice and in accordance with uniform, certain, and universal laws, and to be tried by their equals when accused of wrong-doing. No other people of the world then believed in these rights. This spirit dwelt in all English breasts, and made all Englishmen friends because they understood each other. A third force tended to draw all the colonies together: one home government, all of whose officers spoke the predominant colonial language. The necessities of war, the political ideas, and the common language, prevailed sufficiently by 1754, the year before Braddock's defeat, to produce the acceptance on the part of eight colonies of the plan of a Convention at Albany on the Hudson River.

§ 6. In 1754 Benjamin Franklin Organized the Albany Convention.

The organizer of this famous Convention was Benjamin Franklin of Philadelphia. The purpose of the Convention was to prevent France from seizing the lands below the Ohio, which Virginia desired. New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland sent delegates to confer with delegates from the Indians of the Six Nations. Franklin submitted a plan for colonial union, which was adopted and then reported to

the English government and to the colonies. England rejected the plan because it gave too much power to the colonies, and the colonies rejected it because it gave them too little. But the Albany Convention was a success, for it had afforded an opportunity for representatives of various colonies to become acquainted with each other by conferences, in which they considered many matters of general interest. It was the logical foundation for the later Confederation that, by its Continental Congress of Colonies, organized and carried out the War of Independence.

§ 7. England Pursued the Colonial Policy of All Nations of the Times.

In 1651 the English Parliament, following the historic policy of all European nations that had colonies, passed the first Act of a series later known as Navigation Acts. In 1660, upon the downfall of the Puritan Republic and the restoration of the Stuart Monarchy in England, a stricter Act was passed, which provided that only English or English colonial ships should carry goods to and from the colonies, and that certain articles of merchandise, of which tobacco was the most important, should be taken from the colonies only to England and English dependencies. A few years later another Act provided that the colonial merchants should buy manufactured goods in England only. It was never possible entirely to enforce these laws. Smuggling was not only common; it was openly admitted as a business practice. In an age when even piracy was considered legitimate, and, when successful, honorable, neither merchants nor officers at ports of entry hesitated at bribery and collusion to evade the laws.

§ 8. Faithful English Governors were Unpopular.

But in 1761 Parliament decided to try to enforce these neglected Acts, which had been used by the lower officers as much to blackmail merchants as to collect revenues in the colonies for England. Since 1684, when the non-enforcement of the Acts was made a pretext for revoking the Massachusetts Charter, their existence had almost been forgotten in New England. In that year Andros had been appointed governor of Massachusetts, and later, 1688, of all New England, New York, and New Jersey. His province was called New England, and throughout it he meant to put an end to all violations of the laws. For trying to do so he was himself arrested and thrown into prison, to be deported to England at the time of the English Revolution. However, he came back as governor of Virginia, and again as governor of New Jersey, for brief periods. He was one of those faithful servants of the English Crown who were particularly disliked by the American colonists for that very reason.

§ 9. The Colonies Exchanged Assurances of Salaries to Governors for Favorable Legislation.

As a class, the governors were able, just, and honest, far more just and honest than the governors sent by other countries to rule their colonies. The English laws were generally as favorable to the colonies as were the laws of other countries. In the enforcement of these laws the governors and the other royal officers of high position were much more lenient than their oaths of office or common custom in the colonies of the time required them to be. They were not extortioners, exacting greater fees and

taxes than the laws allowed, and taking the illegal profits to themselves. Very few of them were inclined to turn the authority of their offices to the advantage of their friends and to the injury of their enemies. They were generally men of easy-going dispositions, inclined to make their stay in the New World as pleasant as possible for themselves and their families. Unfortunately for England, they fell into the custom of agreeing to certain bills in the various colonial legislatures before the legislatures appropriated the money for their salaries. If the governor refused to agree to laws proposed, the legislatures made it a practice to withhold the governor's salary until his consent was given. In consequence, the local laws of the colonies were very favorable to themselves, and the colonies came to be very nearly independent and almost entirely self-governing.

§ 10. Loyalty to England Declined.

On England's side the laws of the home government were not enforced in the colonies, and her governors exchanged the assurance of getting their salaries for signature to laws that ignored the home-government in London; on the side of the colonies, the people in each successive generation became more and more separated from the traditions and customs of the home-country, and more and more independent in thought and aspiration. They were, in fact, neither loyal to England nor disloyal, but indifferent, despite their many professions of loyalty, according to the fashion of the speech and writing of the times. Nor were all the colonists English, or of English descent. In the crisis to come, the Scotch-Irish were destined to be more loyal than the English themselves. But there were people

of other blood also in the colonies: Huguenots from France, Germans from the Rhine, and Dutch from Holland. To many of these people England meant only the country which had opened up this region of the New World as a refuge from oppression. Any English laws that looked oppressive easily caused the ancient gratitude to die in the souls of those persons who were not English by blood.

§ 11. The English Party was Composed of Merchants and Other Well-to-do People.

The struggle that lay ahead was destined to be no general uprising of a single, harmonious people to overthrow a distant tyrant. It was to be, rather, a civil war; for many of the colonists were staunch supporters of the Crown. On the one side, that of the mother-country, were three classes. The first of these were the English people who had recently immigrated. They remembered their homes, the English idea of reverence for the king and respect for the ruling classes in Church and State, and the law and order of their former lives. The second class were the merchants and their employés and allies in trade, who were generally well-to-do, and as comfortable in mind as they were in estate. They saw no good reason for a change to other conditions that would probably be worse. The third class was composed of farmers, mechanics, and other industrious workers, who were too busy to think of politics and statesmanship, and were very much disposed to let well enough alone. Of all these Loyalists there were many hundreds of thousands from Boston to Savannah. They knew how very slightly they were affected by English laws, and could see in change nothing but possibilities of evil.

§ 12. The Revolutionary Party was Composed of Aristocrats and Democrats.

On the other side, the side of those who desired either the complete independence of each colony from England, or the national independence of a union of colonies, or, at least, colonial freedom from all interference in local or inter-colonial or foreign affairs of government and business, there were many different groups and classes of people.

Many of the leaders came from aristocratic Virginia and democratic Massachusetts. The first men of Virginia had too long been masters on their own plantations to be willing to endure other masters across the sea. The first men of Massachusetts had too long controlled in the democracy of town-meeting and parish-meeting (which were often the same) to care to maintain longer the appearance of being ruled by others. The idea of independence had long been growing in the minds of these leaders. Another class, represented in nearly all the colonies, consisted of those whose families had risen in the New World, and who saw in the extention of liberty immense possibilities for themselves and their children. These were the thinkers of the Revolution. Their thought was radical. They meant to see bondage of all kinds cease and human equality established.

Then there were the discontented people who had not been successful, and who saw in revolutionary changes possibilities of advancement for themselves. There were disorderly people who desired no government at all. There were finally, the adventurers, the enemies of England, the professional soldiers, and various others, all of whom helped to swell the great number who were destined to oppose the continuance of English rule in this land.

§ 13. Effective Leadership Directed the Patriot Cause.

When England undertook to enforce the Stamp Act in 1765, and later the Tea and other Acts, the Loyalists found no leaders and maintained no organization. The revolutionary party, however, at once found leaders, and began to form and to develop a very strong organization. Among these leaders were the great orators, Patrick Henry of Virginia and James Otis of Massachusetts: the great business man, Benjamin Franklin, and the popular advocate, John Dickinson, author of the famous "Farmer's Letters," both of Pennsylvania; and the great democratic politician, Samuel Adams of Massachusetts. To this one fact, more than to any other, is due the final success of the patriot cause. The leaders were by no means agreed as to the aim of the movement in which they combined; but they did combine. Otherwise the revolutionary party, composed of so many discordant elements, could never have been successful against the English arms. Some were for mere protest, others were for colonial independence under the protection of England; few at first were ready to fight for complete national freedom. Scarcely one foresaw a republic of self-governed citizens as the result of war.

Faneuil Hall, Boston.

§ 14. A Cry was Raised, "No Taxation Without Representation."

The actual legislation of England with reference to the colonies was meant to secure two objects. The first was recognition by the colonists of the right of the home government to levy and collect any and all kinds of taxes.

Patrick Henry Addressing the House of Burgesses.

The second was to get enough taxes to pay at least a part of the immense sum expended in defense of the colonies against the French advance from Canada. To the first of these objects, the colonists replied, "No taxation without representation." Their reply to the second was a series of acts of resistance, of which one of the most picturesque was the Boston Tea Party. In the eighty years since the English Revolution, 1688–9, Parliament had grown all-powerful, and regarded both the speech and the action as little short of treason.

§ 15. The Revolutionary Party Generally Desired Protection from Foreign Enemies, but Local Independence.

"No taxation without representation" meant that since all the people in England were entitled to representation in Parliament, and since the colonists had no representation, no taxation at all could be levied in America by the English Parliament. When England replied, suggesting that the colonies send representatives, when even Benjamin Franklin proposed a scheme of representation, the revolutionary colonists declined to consider the suggestion, alleging that the distance from Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Charleston was far too great to permit of efficient and just government. In view of the fact that three months were commonly required for a letter to go to England and a reply to be received, it is evident that a representative in Parliament would be very remote from his American constituency. Perhaps in that day the most popular plan was to form a union of the American colonies, with a separate Parliament, and subject to England only in matters of war. This plan found few friends in England.

"No taxation" meant, in fact, a denial of the colonial relation to England, but was proclaimed by many who meant to demand England's protection in time of war. To such a condition had the free air of this New World brought the minds of many, probably of most, of the colonials in 1760. In the affairs of men there is legal provision by government for recognition of the youth who has grown to be a man and has the right to be independent of his father; but in the affairs of nations there is no higher international authority to compel a nation to recognize that a colony has "come of age" and deserves independence.

§ 16. The Stamp Act was Passed and Repealed.

The various acts of English oppression, to use the phrase of the radicals of that day, were these. In 1761 England began to enforce the existing laws. This led to violence in Massachusetts. In 1764 the House of Commons passed a resolution that taxation in the colonies without their repre-

The TIMES are Dreadful, Dismal Doleful Dolorous, and DOLLAR-LESS.

Thurſday, *October* 31, 1765 THE NUMB. 1195.

PENNSYLVANIA JOURNAL;
AND
WEEKLY ADVERTISER.

EXPIRING. In Hopes of a Reſurrection to LIFE again.

I AM ſorry to be obliged to acquaint my Readers, that as the STAMP-ACT, is fear'd to be obligatory upon us after the *Firſt of November* enſuing, (the *fatal To morrow*) the Publiſher of this Paper unable to bear the Burthen, has thought it expedient TO STOP a while, in order to deliberate, whether any Methods can be found to elude the Chains forged for us, and eſcape the inſupportable Slavery, which it is hoped, from the laſt Repreſentations now made againſt that Act, may be effected. Mean while, I muſt earneſtly Requeſt every Individual of my Subſcribers many of whom have been long behind Hand, that they would immediately Diſcharge their reſpective Arrears that I may be able, not only to ſupport myſelf during the Interval, but be better prepared to proceed again with this Paper, whenever an opening for that Purpoſe appears, which I hope will be ſoon WILLIAM BRADFORD.

An Emblem of the Effects of the STAMP
O the fatal Stamp
Adieu Adieu to the LIBERTY of the *PRESS*

At the Time of the Stamp Act.

sentation was just, and Parliament passed an Act levying certain imposts to try the question in the colonies practically. In 1765 the Stamp Act was passed, imposing a tax upon newspapers, and various commercial documents, such as deeds and mortgages. It struck at the two strongest classes in any nation, — the professional men, both journalists and lawyers, and the business men. Virginia and Massachusetts passed resolutions of protest, and a

convention of delegates from the colonies met at New York to discuss the matter. This Stamp Act Convention brought into prominence the Sons of Liberty, especially in New York. These "Sons" played a very important part in public and private affairs for the next ten years, organizing mobs that attacked the Loyalists, and keeping alive the democratic agitation for equal personal rights and for national independence. In the following year, 1766, the Stamp Act was repealed; but in 1767 an Act was passed imposing duties upon glass, paper, painters' colors, and teas. This Act called forth both intense and general opposition. Many merchants in the North agreed to stop buying English goods, except a few "enumerated articles," as they were styled.

Reading the Stamp Act in Boston.

§ 17. Blood was Shed in Massachusetts and North Carolina. In 1768 England sent over soldiers to assist the customs officers in enforcing the Act at the port of Boston. The Act itself, however, was repealed in 1770, in a very conciliatory manner, but the troops were not withdrawn. In 1770, occurred the Boston Massacre, when the English soldiers killed three citizens and wounded five others. In this same year, 1770, occurred, in New York City, the "battle

of Golden Hill," which was a series of conflicts between the British soldiers and the Sons of Liberty over the right of the people to maintain a liberty pole. One citizen was killed. The soldiers were finally defeated. In the following year, 1771, came the insurrection in North Carolina against the tyranny of the royal governor, Tryon, where a battle was fought with fifteen hundred rebels against a thousand colonial militia. This was civil war.

The Boston Massacre. (After the famous picture by the patriot, Paul Revere.)

§ 18. Tea Caused Much Trouble and also Some Amusement.

It was in 1772 that the *Gaspee*, an armed English schooner, pursuing a packet-boat on its way to Providence, ran aground, and was burned that night by the colonists.

In 1773, partly to help the East India Company, whose warehouses were overloaded with seventeen million pounds of tea, and partly to conciliate the colonists, the English government arranged for the sale of tea in America at a price that, even with duty added, was lower than ever before. Thereupon the Company sent large cargoes to Boston, New

The Boston Tea Party Delighted the Patriots Everywhere.

York, Philadelphia, and Charleston. New York and Philadelphia sent the tea back; Charleston stored it in damp cellars where it was spoiled; and Boston one evening overturned the tea into the harbor at the celebrated Tea Party, when some sixty of the best citizens disguised themselves as Indians, and carried out to the letter the unexpressed desire of a great Boston public meeting held that very day, 1773. In these years only Loyalists drank tea and used English goods, often at the cost of a suit of tar and feathers at the hands of the rough and lawless men in the party of liberty.

§ 19. The Boston Port Bill Closed the Harbor.

Then in 1774 came the Boston Port Bill, shutting out its commerce at the dictation of King George III, a sincere man, much influenced by an equally sincere man, his prime minister, Lord North. These men believed in the rule of colonies by the home government, as do all kings and most prime ministers to this day. General Gage was sent with more soldiers to hold the rebellious city in subjection. In 1775 an Act was passed forbidding the New England people from fishing off the Banks of Newfoundland. England meant either to rule or to ruin New England.

§ 20. The General Congress Began its Sessions.

Meantime, in 1774, a General Continental Congress had been organized as a result of the activity of the Committees of Correspondence. This Congress had no legal rights whatever, for its authority was distinctly contrary to that of the King's government. Nor did it govern by general consent. Rather, it governed by right of democracy, which gives the control of peoples to the stronger party, the majority rightfully. In the war then coming on, this General Congress by its final success proved its right to exist.

§ 21. The Issue between America and England was the Supremacy of Parliament Abroad as at Home.

The England and the English government, to which this bold opposition had now arisen in America, were by no means the England and the English government that had established Jamestown in Virginia, 1607, and Plymouth in Massachusetts, 1620, but a century and a half before. Then England was engaged in great religious and political

struggles; she was scarcely as great a power in Europe as France; her population may have been four millions of people. Then her rulers were the Stuarts, strong believers in the "divine right of Kings," bitter opponents of the claims of Parliament and of the people to a share in government, and champions of the State Church. But in 1775, England was comparatively peaceful; she had just won a series of great wars with France; she was unquestionably the first power in Europe; her population was twice as great and many times as rich as in 1620. Her rulers were the foreign Hanoverians from Germany, who governed by the new device of the Cabinet, and who were ready to admit freely the absolute supremacy of Parliament. Religious discussions were over, for all Christian denominations were tolerated. The struggle came upon a point of which the seventeenth century colonists could have known nothing.

They regarded the King as supreme. Parliament in 1775 was demanding that its supremacy be admitted in the colonies as it was at home. Lord North, the prime minister, represented not so much King George III, as Parliament, whose majority was Tory. His Cabinet and Parliament cared something for their point that the colonies should help pay for the great wars that had redeemed America from France, but they cared far more for the principle of the supremacy of Parliament throughout the British Empire. This Tory party saw only the destruction of society, in the arguments of Patrick Henry in the famous Parsons' Cause, 1761, against a Church supported by taxes, and of James Otis, 1761, against a State that could invade any man's house to look for smuggled goods, as proposed but not accomplished by the "Writs of Assistance."

§ 22. Liberty is Founded upon Self-government.

The British Parliament meant to show its absolute power; that is, the supremacy of the Lords and Commons of England. The Lords, who formed the higher house in that greatest legislature of the world, held their power by inheritance. The members of the lower house, the Commons of England, held their positions by election of the voters, or by nomination of certain Lords. For this Parliament of the peers and the free men great wars had been fought through long centuries. It gave England a better government than any other nation had. Nevertheless, the colonists were against Parliament. Among them a few looked deep into the rights of men. This minority was opposed to lords and to kings, and was in favor of the equality of all.

These thinkers had studied the wisdom of the world's great philosophers, among the Jews, the Greeks, the Romans, the Swiss, the Italians, the Germans, the Dutch, the French, and the English. Their foundation doctrine was expressed by the Italian Beccaria, "Every act of authority of one man over another for which there is not absolute necessity, is tyrannical." From these scholars came the great doctrine that a just government can exist only by the consent of the governed. This doctrine of the rights of men to liberty and equality was the moving cause of the Revolution. Benjamin Franklin argued it before Parliament, Council, and King. Samuel Adams proclaimed it in Massachusetts towns and villages, and Patrick Henry expounded it in the courts of Virginia. Livingston, John Adams, Jefferson, set it before the world for all time in the Declaration of Independence, 1776. War had come because America would no longer consent to government by Parliament over the sea.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. What was the New England Confederacy? How long did it last?

2. If the union of the colonies had come earlier than 1775, why might our nation have been not federal, but central?

3. What were some of the facts and forces that tended to keep the colonies separate?

4. Explain the relation of slavery to the disunitedness of the colonies.

5. What were the forces that made for colonial union?

6. Explain the "rights of Englishmen."

7. Give an account of the Albany Convention of 1754 and of its results.

8. Describe the conditions of colonial trade.

9. Why was the Massachusetts charter revoked in 1684?

10. Why were faithful English governors unpopular in America?

11. What may be said of the character of most of the royal governors?

12. How did the colonial legislatures bribe the governors?

13. Were the colonists generally loyal to England?

14. What classes of people were disposed to support the authority of King and Parliament?

15. What classes were disposed to support the cause of American independence?

16. Did the patriots or the united empire loyalists secure the best leaders and the strongest organization?

17. What objects was England's legislation meant to secure?

18. What was the meaning of the cry, "No taxation without representation"?

19. What plans were suggested to meet this popular opposition to Parliamentary control?

20. What was the Stamp Act?

21. Why did it arouse violent resistance?

22. Discuss the deeds and ideas of the "Sons of Liberty."

23. What was the fate of the Act taxing glass, paper, and tea?

24. What was the battle of Golden Hill?

25. What was the Boston Massacre?

26. What was the result of the insurrection of 1771 in South Carolina?

27. What was the Tea Act of 1773?

28. What disasters befell cargoes of tea to America?

29. What was the Boston Port Bill, and what was its purpose?

30. Discuss the Continental Congress.

31. Compare the England of the early Stuarts to the England of the Hanoverians.

32. What was the main purpose of Parliament in taxing America?

33. What was the influence of the doctrine of the "rights of man"?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Contemporaries*, Vol. II.: Causes and conditions of the Revolution, pp. 373–477.

Hart's *Source Readers*, Vol. II., Part VI.: Causes of the Revolution, pp. 153–182.

Fisher's *True History of the Revolution*, pp. 1–182.

Fiske's *War of Independence*, Vol. I.

Van Tyne's *Loyalists in the Revolution*, Chapters I.–IV.

Larned's *History for Ready Reference*, Vol. V.: United States, 1760-1775.

Hart's *Formation of the Union*, Chap. III.

MacDonald's *Select Charters*, Vol. I.: Albany Plan of Union. Also: Stamp Act, Revenue Act, Tea Act, Port Bill, etc.

MacLaughlin's *History of the American Nation*, Chapter VIII.: Causes of the Revolution.

Consult biographies of James Otis, Patrick Henry, Benjamin Franklin, Samuel Adams.

Bancroft's *History of the United States.* In the last (six volume) edition, an entire volume is devoted to the subject of this chapter.

Thompson's *Hand of God in American History*, Chapter V.

Wendell's *Literary History of America*, pp. 92–118.

TOPICS FOR INQUIRY OR DISCUSSION.

1. The Decline of Slavery.
2. The Various Nationalities in America in 1775.
3. The Albany Convention.
4. The Navigation Acts.
5. Bribery of Governors; that is, Buying the Laws.
6. James Otis, and the Writs of Assistance, 1770,— Massachusetts.
7. Patrick Henry, and the Parsons' Cause, 1763,— Virginia.
8. John Dickinson's "Farmer's Letters."
9. Benjamin Franklin's Examination before Parliament, 1766.
10. The House of Hanover: George III.
11. The Boston Tea Party.
12. The United Empire Loyalists.

13. Samuel Adams, Forerunner of Democracy in America.

14. General Gage in Boston. — The Effects of the Boston Port Bill.

15. The Growth of the English Cabinet, — from "the Cabal" of Charles II to Lord North, Prime Minister.

16. The Whigs and the Tories in England in 1770.

17. The Misfortunes of Hutchinson, Loyalist, in Massachusetts.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1754. Albany Convention.
1763. End of French and Indian War.
1765. Stamp Act.
1765. Stamp Act Congress.
1766. Repeal of Stamp Act.
1767. Revenue Act (Townshend Act).
1770. Repeal of Revenue Act.
1770. Boston Massacre.
1771. North Carolina insurrection.
1773. Tea Act.
1774. Boston Port Bill.
1774. General Congress.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE.

Represent graphically upon the blackboard the varied lengths of these intervals, to show the ever faster rates of the movement of history.

1492. Columbus.
A "New World" is found.
115 years.

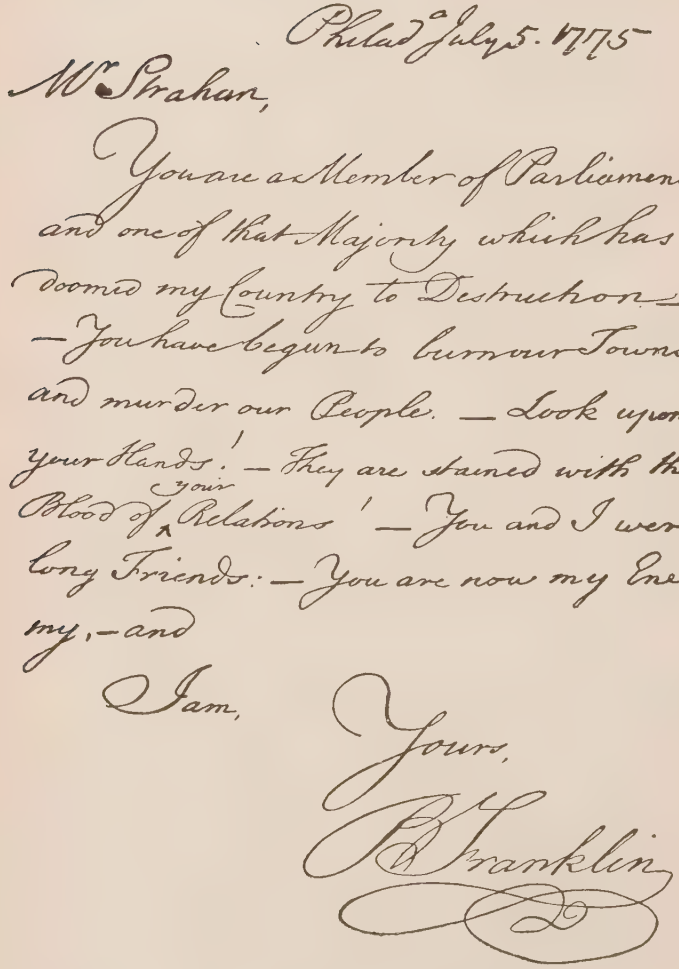
1607. Jamestown.
The English establish a successful colony.
57 years.

1664. New York.
All the colonies possess the "rights of Englishmen."
69 years.

1733. Georgia.
English colonization ends in a great philanthropy.
32 years.

1765. Stamp Act.
The colonists object to Old World taxes.
10 years.

1775. War.



Philad.a July 5. 1775

W.m Strahan,

You are a Member of Parliament, and one of that Majority which has doomed my Country to Destruction. —You have begun to burn our Towns, and murder our People. —Look upon your Hands! —They are stained with the Blood of your Relations! —You and I were long Friends: —You are now my Enemy, —and

I am,

Yours,

B Franklin

This famous letter was written but never sent to William Strahan, a personal friend of Franklin, who had risen from being common printer, to be "Printer to the King."

PART THREE.

BUILDING THE NATION.

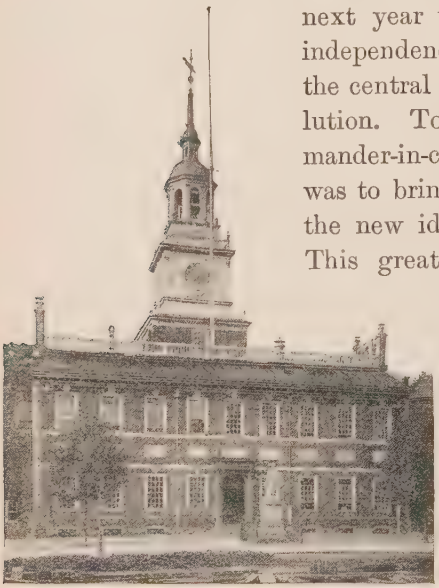
CHAPTER I.

DEVELOPING THE IDEA OF A NATION.

§ 1. The Continental Congress was Undecided as to its Policy, but Selected George Washington as Commander-in-Chief of its Armies.

When the Continental Congress, organized by the Committees of Correspondence, met at Philadelphia for its second session, the delegates were by no means unanimous as to the object that they should seek to secure by protest against the policy of England in reference to taxation. However, more of them than in the first session were anxious to gain complete independence, and less of them were hopeful that England would give up the idea of asserting her sovereign right to tax the colonies. The most important act of the Congress was to select a commander-in-chief for the armies raised in the various colonial States and gathered about Boston. Selected though these delegates often were by mere factions, and not by the majorities of their districts, they were almost unanimous in choosing the Virginian hero of the campaigns of Braddock and Forbes. The Massachusetts delegates, particularly, urged the appointment of Washington, because he came from Virginia. His election would insure the support of the South in the great struggle just beginning. At this time George Washington was in his vigorous manhood, forty-three years of age, and

the best known man in the colonies. It was this decision of the Continental Congress that more than any other single act led to their agreement next year to declare for national independence. Washington was the central influence of the Revolution. To have one general commander-in-chief for all the colonies was to bring before all the people the new idea of a single nation. This great man was always an American first and a Virginian second.

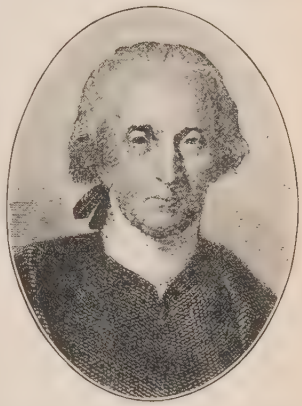


Independence Hall, where the Continental Congress Met.

§ 2. The Division of the People in the Colonies Extended Through All Classes.

The people best pleased by this selection of George Washington were those who in well-to-do or fair circumstances saw in his leadership the security of property and persistence in their purpose, which was to win the right of self-government. For George Washington was not only the brilliant surveyor of lands, the hardy frontiersman, the excellent soldier, rich by his own efforts, he was also a great land-owner by inheritance, and he had married Mrs. Martha Custis, a widow who brought him not only lands, which in those times were worth little to buy and sell, but also fifty thousand pounds in gold, a quarter of a million

dollars, a magnificent sum of money in those days. The Washingtons were among the wealthiest families enlisted on the patriot side. Only Charles Carroll of Carrollton, Maryland, was richer. Only John Hancock, Benjamin Franklin, and Robert Morris as business men were equally well known. The Mount Vernon brand of flour, made by Washington, was sold in large quantities in London, even during the Revolution. The Mount Vernon cloth, too, was famous. There were many wealthy families among the Loyalists, or Tories, but there were quite as many such families among the patriots, or Whigs, or "rebels." Fortunately for the patriot cause, these wealthy families were willing to spend their wealth as freely as their blood. The colonial population was divided in every class, among the rich as well as among the poor, between Loyalists and Revolutionists, with this important difference, that the former had no leader, while the latter had the greatest leader of men in the world's history.



Charles Carroll, of Carrollton, Maryland. Born, 1737; died, 1832. Lived to be present at the beginning of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, 1828.

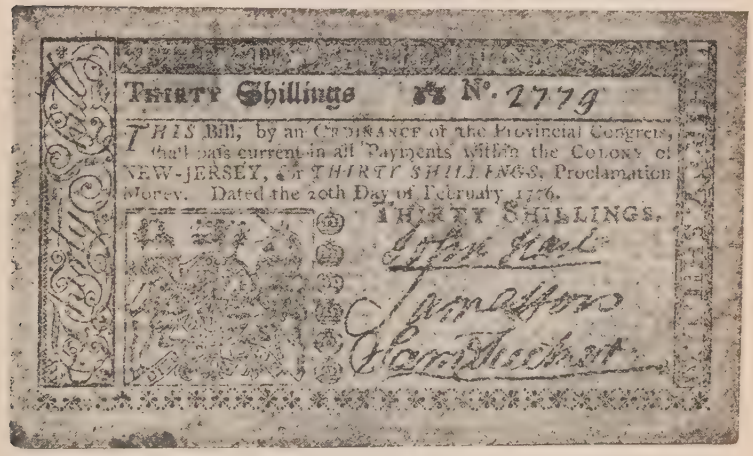
§ 3. The Loyalists were Mercilessly Persecuted.

Years before the war actually began, the Loyalists, who believed in the right of King George III to tax the colonies, and who believed that his government was a better government than any other that could be maintained in the New World, found themselves unpopular with their opponents,

General George Washington.

Born, 1732; died, 1799. Frontiersman; land-surveyor; soldier; politician; business man; statesman; President.

and found, too, that their opponents were bitter and disagreeable in their opposition. As hostilities proceeded, the lot of the King's friends grew worse and worse. There were many hundreds of thousands of them, in some colonies a majority of the people, at the beginning of the war. The most severe measures were adopted against them. As the various royal governments failed one after another in the


Thirty Shillings
N° 2779
THIS Bill, by an Ordinance of the Provincial Congress, shall pass current in all Payments within the Colony of NEW-JERSEY, for THIRTY SHILLINGS, Proclamation Money. Dated the 20th Day of February 1776.
THIRTY SHILLINGS.

Paper-Money in the Time of the Revolution, with the Signature of John Hart, of New Jersey, a Signer of the Declaration.

colonies, the Loyalists could get no protection from the law. The governments set up by the Committees of Correspondence and the allied associations, issued law after law against them. The Loyalists could not collect rents and debts due them; were required to take Continental money at its face value; and could not prove title to lands or goods. Most of them were utterly ruined in property. They were persecuted by their neighbors, thrown into jail, even confined

in underground dungeons. Thousands of them were tarred and feathered. In sickness they could secure no physicians. Their only safety was to get into Boston or Philadelphia, and, when their money gave out, to depend upon the charity of the English army. At the end of the war, a hundred thousand of them were exiled. Even Washington approved of these merciless measures; they were the price of liberty for this nation. For the Loyalists fought in the English armies, served as spies in the patriot camps, and led in many of the Indian outrages. There was war in America, — not merely the war of revolution against the established government backed by arms, ships, and men, but also the war between fellow-countrymen, the bitterest of all wars.

The result of all this persecution was, that at the close of the war almost none who believed in monarchy were left in this country of ours. The idea of aristocracy of privilege by birth was completely eradicated from the American character. We were free to develop democracy as the fundamental principle of our new nation. All the rich Tories had disappeared. All the rich patriots were poorer than before. In their common equality of condition the people were to build up a new nation.

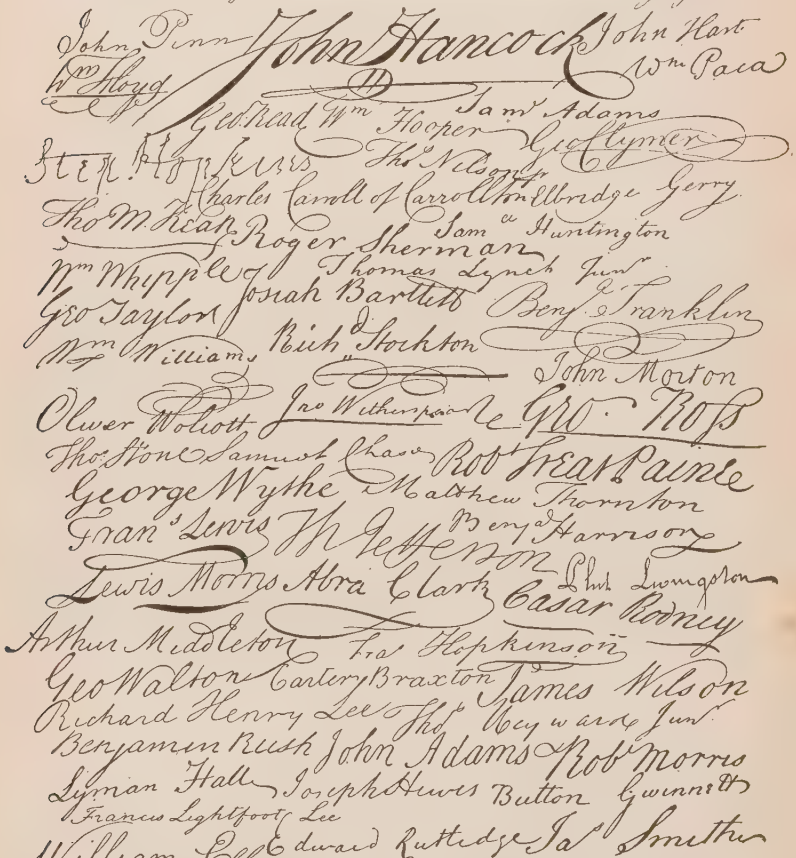
§ 4. Congress Proclaimed the Declaration of Independence.

Boston had been won by Washington, 1776, and the expedition against Canada had failed, 1775–1776, when men began generally to agree in Congress and out of it, that some statement should be made to the world as to the purposes and object of the war. During the years 1775 and 1776 many circumstances were leading the colonists on to the idea of complete separation from the mother-country.

George III contemptuously refused to listen to a peaceful petition from Congress. He hired thousands of German soldiers to fight in America. The wisdom of independence was first plainly stated to the colonists in a remarkable pamphlet called "Common Sense," written by Thomas Paine. This pamphlet had a wide circulation, and produced a profound effect. Paine had come to America from England in 1774, but had immediately understood the situ-

Signing the Declaration of Independence.

ation. He began his argument for independence with the now famous words, "These are the times that try men's souls." In 1776 Washington wrote, "When I took command of the army, I abhorred the idea of independence; now I am convinced nothing else will save us." Long debates were held, a committee was appointed, instructions were given, and the result was the Declaration of Independence, unanimously adopted July 4, 1776, and signed



Of the signers of the Declaration not half were native-born Americans of native-born parents.

soon afterwards. The Declaration was written out by Thomas Jefferson of Virginia, but its sentiments — even its words and phrases — were dictated by Congress in various resolutions. With Jefferson upon the committee were John Adams of Massachusetts, Franklin of Pennsylvania, Livingston of New York, and Sherman of Connecticut. John Hancock, the Boston merchant, Treasurer of Harvard College, President of Congress, was the first signer; but after his signature followed the signatures of many other famous men. Franklin said, "We must all hang together lest we all hang separately." This was humorous, and helped the deputies to bear themselves cheerfully as well as boldly in the dangerous business of rebellion against the greatest empire of the earth.

§ 5. The Patriot Cause was Weak, and England was Very Strong.

In 1776 England was mistress of Ireland, of India, and of the best part of North America. She had defeated Spain and France in war, and had surpassed Holland in trade. Italy was poor and ignorant, and had only a small population. Russia, Prussia, and Austria were not yet great nations in wealth and power. England was supreme. She was the richest nation in Europe. Hers was the best army, hers the best navy, hers the best merchant-marine. Her population was eight million, while that of her American colonies in rebellion was three, of whom half a million were Negroes, and more than another half million were Loyalists. Over against such strength as hers the rebels in America could not be expected to win; and none in Europe did expect them to win. They had not even the advantage of

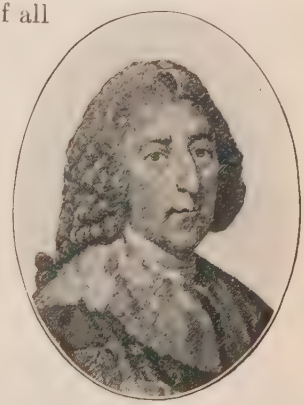
a strong central government. Specie money, which is the life-blood of modern war, was almost entirely wanting, for it was drained away by the foreign trade. But the rebels were courageous, and courage directs destiny.

§ 6. Elements of Weakness on England's Side.

Yet England was not as strong as she appeared. She was heavily in debt, for the long wars with France had cost immense sums of money. Her people were tired of war. To get soldiers her government was compelled to hire many men in Germany. America lay at a great distance. Transportation of troops required several weeks, and was costly. Her army and navy departments were very corrupt, and vast sums of money were stolen by officials, and never spent for the uses intended. Her own Parliament was corrupt. The members of the House of Commons did not represent public opinion. The great cities had almost no members, while little "pocket boroughs" sent many, who really represented not the "commons," or plain people, of England, but the lords, in whose pockets were the documents giving them the right to name members for these boroughs. Parliament was full of dull people, who made very bad

George III. Born, 1738; died, 1820.

mistakes in legislation. The king was by no means an able man; during his long reign of sixty years he went insane five times. England had enemies abroad ready and anxious to make trouble for her. Worst of all for her cause, just as America was divided between Patriots and Loyalists, so England was divided between Tories and Whigs; and the Whigs, led by the great orators and statesmen, William Pitt and Edmund Burke, were never believers in the attempt to compel America to submit to taxation. When, in 1782, the Whigs, under Lord Rockingham, came into control of England's affairs, peace with the United States was soon declared.



William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, Whig Statesman. Born, 1708; died, 1778.

The Whigs won in the Parliamentary election of 1782 because they advocated peace and recognition of American independence. In that age only a small proportion of Englishmen could vote. It is not seriously to be doubted that a majority of the English people never favored coercion of America by force.

§ 7. European Nations Sent Aid.

In 1778 Benjamin Franklin succeeded in securing an alliance with France. Soon afterwards he secured loans of money from Holland; and even Spain lent financial aid. Then came the soldiers and marines of France, without whom Yorktown would not have been won. Prussia had sent, in the early days of the war, De Kalb and Steuben to

drill the militia. Other good soldiers came from Ireland. Paul Jones left Wales as late as 1773 to become one of the greatest naval heroes in all history. Indeed, for one cause and another, in every part of western Europe, including the mother-country, there were individual persons and whole parties anxiously hoping to see the rebellion successful and a new nation established.

§ 8. Benjamin Franklin was the Diplomat of the War.

It was in the direction of the foreign affairs of the struggling colonies that Benjamin Franklin proved himself second only to Washington as the maker of the nation-to-be. He represented in Europe a single country, not merely a collection of rebelling colonies. Already in 1776, when he went to Europe as America's ambassador in fact, though not yet in name, he was older than Washington ever lived to be. His great achievements in business, in politics, in science, in invention, in literature, and in journalism were behind him. He had for years before been colonial agent in London. From his many-sided contact with life he had gathered wisdom. Almost as dignified as the majestic General, even more venerable, he won the hearts of people by his benign presence and manner and his ready wit. The ladies of the French court were especially charmed with him. By his

Benjamin Franklin.
Born, 1706; died, 1790.
Scientist: author: financier: diplomat: statesman.

personal efforts he persuaded the statesmen and financiers of Europe to indorse the patriot cause. With him, at various times, were John Adams, James Monroe, and Thomas Jefferson, but he was the recognized leader of them all. He remained in Europe upon this diplomatic errand until 1785.

Charles Watson Wentworth, Lord Rockingham.
Born, 1730: died, 1782. English Prime Minister, Whig.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. Upon the question of national independence, what advance had the second Continental Congress made beyond the first?

2. For what reasons was a commander-in-chief chosen? And for what reasons was George Washington the one selected?

3. What was the most important difference between the patriots and the loyalists?

4. Describe the treatment of the loyalists during the Revolution.

5. What was the result of the Revolution upon the doctrine of an aristocracy of privilege?

6. Give some of the causes that led to the Declaration of Independence.

7. Describe the relations of each of the following men to the Declaration: Washington, Paine, Jefferson, John Adams, Livingston, Sherman: and tell what Franklin did for the Declaration, and what he said of it.

8. What was the position of England in 1776 among the nations of the world?

9. What were the elements of strength and weakness upon the side of the patriots?

10. What were the elements of weakness upon the side of England?

11. What did European nations do to help the new nation?

12. What diplomatic services were rendered by Benjamin Franklin?

13. Compare the services of Washington and Franklin.

14. Was the final treaty of peace, 1783, granted by a Whig or by a Tory ministry?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

The Declaration of Independence: see Appendix V.

Hart's *Contemporaries:* Vol. II., pp. 434 *et seq.* Congress; King George the Third; Tories; Hessians; Washington; Treaty of 1783.

Burke's *Speech on Conciliation with America;* with Introduction by Thompson.

Lodge's *Life of Washington.*

Wilson's *Life of Washington.*

Morse's *Life of Jefferson.*

Ford's *The Many-sided Franklin.*

Morse's *Life of Franklin.*

Harper's *Encyclopædia of United States History:* Thomas Paine, etc.

Consult the standard encyclopædias for: Robert Morris; Gouverneur Morris; George III.; "Pocket Boroughs"; William Pitt, first Earl of Chatham; Edmund Burke; Lord North; Lord Rockingham.

Van Tyne's *Loyalists in the American Revolution.*

Bancroft's *History of the United States:* Vols. V. and VI.; especially Vol. V., pp. 3–23, 562 581; and Vol. VI., pp. 5–58.

Fisher's *True History of the Revolution*, pp. 182–246.

Fiske's *American Revolution.*
Lodge's *American Revolution.*
Green's *View of the Revolution.*
Hildreth's *History of the United States*, Vol. III.
Lecky's *England in the Eighteenth Century:* The American War.
Tyler's *Literary History of the American Revolution:* The Tories.
Tomlinson's *Stories of the American Revolution.*

TOPICS FOR INQUIRY AND INVESTIGATION.

1. Robert Morris, Financier of the War of Independence.
2. The Wretched Plight of the United Empire Loyalists.
3. Life of the Loyalists in New York and Philadelphia.
4. Signing the Declaration of Independence.
5. "Pocket-boroughs" in England.
6. The Political Struggle in England between the Whigs and the Tories.
7. How the Loans were Secured in Holland.
8. Franklin's Interview with the Council of George III.
9. Franklin in Paris.
10. Edmund Burke and William Pitt, Friends of the Colonies: their speeches and services in behalf of America.
11. The Continental Congress: quality of the members, political methods, etc.
12. The Political Opposition to George Washington.
13. The Hiring of the Hessians from their Prince.
14. The Notable Patriot Leaders: Samuel Adams, etc.
15. Views of the War of Independence upon the Continent of Europe: of the Nobles; of the People.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1774. **First Continental Congress.**
1775. **Beginning of the War of the Revolution.**
1775. **Choice of George Washington as commander-in-chief.**
1776. **Declaration of Independence.**
1776. **Choice of Benjamin Franklin as foreign representative.**
1778. **The Alliance with France.**
1781. **Surrender at Yorktown.**
1782. **The Whigs in England secure control of Parliament.**
1783. **The Treaty of Peace with Great Britain.**

CHAPTER II.

THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR, 1775–1783.

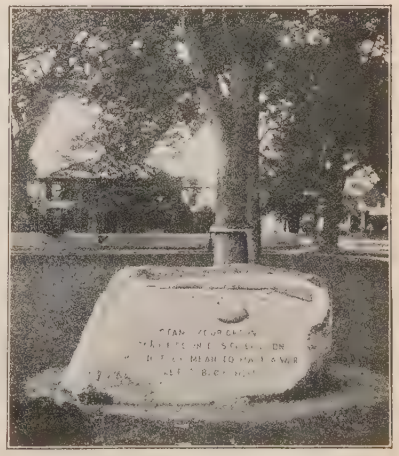
§ 1. The War Involved All the Colonies.

THE War of the Revolution lasted eight years, but active hostilities did not continue constantly throughout this long period. It was a war carried on by both sides under great difficulties. Compared with many other wars it was not important for the size of its armies or for their losses in battle. In its results, however, it was of the greatest importance, for it brought into being the greatest nation of the earth. The War began in Massachusetts, and ended in Virginia. It left the country poor but free. During its course battles were fought in every colonial state except New Hampshire, and it caused civil disturbances even there. It may be divided into three periods, of the Northeastern, the Middle States, and the Southern campaigns.

The Old North Church, in which Paul Revere hung his Lantern the Night before Lexington. (The Claim of this Church is Disputed.)

§ 2. Lexington and Concord Saw the First Fighting.

The first blood of the War was shed at the village of Lexington, Massachusetts, April 19, 1775. General Gates, military governor of Massachusetts, foreseeing the impending conflict, sent an expedition of about eight hundred British regulars to seize the muskets, powder, and other war supplies that had been collected at Concord, about eighteen miles northwest of Boston. The news of this move had been spread through the region the night before by Paul Revere in his famous ride, and when the troops reached Lexington they found a small body of the local militia or "minute men" drawn up on the Common.



The Minute Men at Lexington.

The Continentals were ordered to disperse, and, not being quick to do so, were fired upon and scattered with the loss of several lives. The British then marched to Concord, a few miles beyond. They found there not the stores which they desired, but another and larger body of minute men, and, after a skirmish, thought it prudent to retreat in the direction of Boston. Among these "minute men" and other eager volunteers soon to come from all parts of the colonies, were many who had fought with Pepperell at Louisburg and with Braddock near Duquesne. They had little respect for regular troops and perfect confidence in the militia.

§ 3. All New England was Aroused.

It was high time for the British to retreat, for the alarm had spread and the country was roused. The minute men from all the region round hurried to the scene, and from behind trees and fences began shooting the unfortunate regulars. Under the steady rain of bullets from an unseen enemy the men became completely demoralized, and reached Lexington in a condition of rout. Here, they found re-

The British Retreating from Concord.

enforcements of nine hundred men and two pieces of artillery. They continued the retreat now in better order, though still harassed, until they reached Charlestown and the cover of the British fleet about sunset. They had lost some three hundred men. The amazing news brought Israel Putnam and Benedict Arnold from Connecticut, Stark from New Hampshire, Greene from Rhode Island, and Daniel Morgan from Virginia, with volunteers. General Gage found himself besieged by so large a force of troops that he dared not venture out of Boston.

§ 4. Colonials Took Forts Ticonderoga and Crown Point.

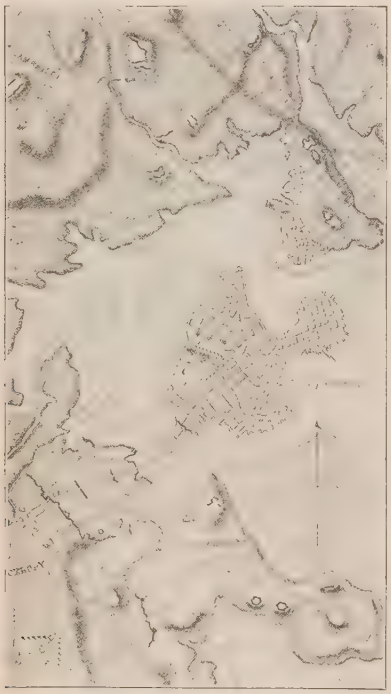
The news of war stirred up Vermont, and some of the "Green Mountain Boys" under Ethan Allen captured Fort Ticonderoga, and others, under Seth Warner, took Crown Point, at the head of Lake Champlain. These two points commanded the route between New York and Canada, and the forts, though lightly garrisoned, were full of military stores; two hundred pieces of artillery were taken and a large supply of powder, which was at that time a most precious commodity.

Ethan Allen Demanding the Surrender of Fort Ticonderoga.

§ 5. At Bunker Hill the English Won Too Costly a Victory.

Early in June General Gage was re-enforced, and afterwards superseded by William Howe, who came into the harbor with a fleet from England. The British force in Boston was now ten thousand men. The heights of Charlestown — Bunker and Breed's Hills — commanded the city, and it was decided by the British to fortify them. This purpose became known to the Americans, who determined to seize and hold the heights themselves. They fortified the hill nearest Boston with earthworks the night before the 17th of June, 1775. At daylight they were

discovered still at work, and were fired on from Boston and from the ships in the harbor, but little damage was done. The city was in a state of great excitement. Copp's Hill, the church spires, and the roofs of the North End, were covered with people that afternoon, for it was soon known that the British would assault the works. It required only a few hours to convey three thousand troops in boats over to the Charlestown shore, and at three o'clock of a beautiful summer afternoon the English were ready for the assault. The redoubt was manned chiefly by those who had been working upon it, a motley crowd of countrymen. Badly armed though they were, they knew how to shoot. The red-coated regulars, however, did not meet them at Bunker Hill, but charged up Breed's Hill, a half mile away, and a lower elevation of land. There the Americans were ready for them. When one hundred yards' range was reached, they fired on the British, who wavered, broke, and fled to the landing-place. Gage, exasperated



Map of Boston. (From Old Print.)

by the repulse, upon the pretext that shots had been fired from the houses at his troops, set the village of Charlestown on fire. The wooden houses burned rapidly, and the meeting-house steeple was soon a mass of flame. The British troops re-formed, and charged again up the hill. Again they were repulsed and driven back in disorder.

General Clinton then came over from Boston to counsel and advise. Through his efforts and those of the other officers the troops were rallied for a third effort. This last

The British Advancing Up Breed's Hill.
(Bunker Hill Monument stands upon this hill, and was dedicated in 1843. Daniel Webster delivered the oration.)

assault met with better success, as the powder of the Americans began to give out. After a hand-to-hand conflict at the top of the hill, the Continentals retired, and made good their retreat over Charlestown Neck. Of the British troops over one thousand were killed or wounded. The colonial

loss was less than half as many. This battle was the first test of provincial troops against the British regulars. The colonials were highly elated with the result.

§ 6. Washington Forced the English out of Boston.

Shortly after the battle of Bunker Hill, George Washington, who had been made commander-in-chief of the American armies, arrived on the scene, and made his headquarters in Cambridge. For some months he had all he could do to get the colonials into form as an army. He had to teach the patriots the military virtues of order, promptness, and obedience. He kept the British in Boston by guarding a line nine miles long.

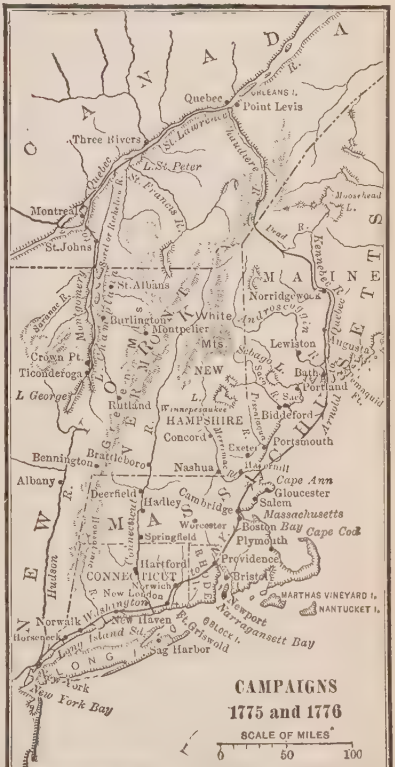
Sir William Howe.

Born, 1729; died, 1814. General, British Army: Whig Statesman. Tried by Parliament, but acquitted, upon charges of incompetence and of indifference to British interests.

In March, 1776, having received some heavy guns from Ticonderoga, Washington threw up earth-works on Dorchester Heights, south of Boston, and mounted the guns there. They commanded the city; and the British, not caring to attack the position, evacuated Boston, and sailed for Halifax. This move of the English was due to Lord Howe, who was a Whig in politics at home, and did not believe in the attempt to compel the colonists to submit to taxation. He was a brave officer, and had led the battle line at Bunker Hill, but as a statesman he was hopeful that a long and costly war could be avoided.

§ 7. The Canadian Campaign Failed.

Meantime there took place the sublime but useless campaigns of Arnold and Montgomery against Canada. In the autumn of 1775 Arnold led a thousand soldiers through the Maine forests to Quebec, which he attacked in December. There was slain, on the last day of the year, the veteran soldier Richard Montgomery, general in command, who had led an expedition from New York to join Arnold. Though severely wounded, Arnold tried to take the city at various times during the winter. In the spring with a handful of survivors, — for many of those whom hardship and starvation and the sword had spared, the dreadful small-pox had taken, — he escaped to Lake Champlain, only to be again defeated.



The failure to win Canada for the patriot cause put an end to the hope that the Revolution would be truly Continental. Well was it for us that Arnold lived to help defeat Burgoyne in the following year! Had he died at Saratoga, he would have left a patriot's name to last as long as our country endures.

§ 8. Moultrie Made a Gallant and Successful Defence of the Fort in Charleston Harbor.

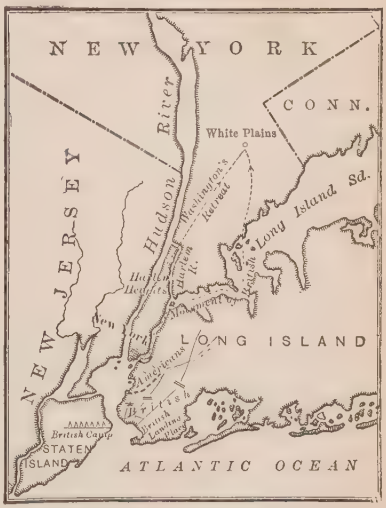
Sergeant William Jasper at Fort Moultrie, 1776, who was killed at Savannah, 1779, in again trying to recover our country's flag.

In June of this year, 1776, in the South, there was won, after a long siege, a gallant victory by Moultrie, in the defence of the fort in Charleston Harbor that ever since has borne his name. In their resistance to its bombardment by the English fleet, he and his comrades displayed signal bravery. The victory is one of many illustrations in history of the superior strength of land batteries against ships.

§ 9. In the Summer of 1776 the Colonials and the English Met on Long Island, and the Colonials Retreated to White Plains.

After taking Boston Washington turned his attention to New York. He found only a few troops there, but upon the call of Congress for more, soon had his army increased to twenty thousand men. With these he occupied New York and Long Island, fortifying Brooklyn Heights, which commanded the city. He had not long to wait for the arrival of the British. Just before the Declaration of Independence was adopted by Congress, General Howe came to New York with a squadron of ships from Halifax. He disembarked his army at Staten Island, and a few days later

was joined by his brother, Lord Admiral Howe, with a fleet and large re-enforcements. The British army at New York then numbered about twenty-five thousand. On August 26 General Howe landed fifteen thousand men on the shore of Gravesend Bay. In three columns, one taking the shore road under Bay Ridge, another the present Fort Hamilton Avenue, and a third the King's Highway, he made a triple advance on the Americans. Several thousand of them outside of the intrenchments on the Heights attempted to check these movements, but were outnumbered, outflanked, and defeated, with a loss of fifteen hundred men. If Washington had not unwisely refused to accept several hundred Connecticut horsemen, the result might have been far different. Though a superb horseman himself, he never learned the use of cavalry.



The Retreat from Long Island.

The easy-going British then settled down to besiege the camp on the Heights, for with the lesson of Bunker Hill behind them they did not care to assault fortified heights. Washington decided not to wait for them. If he had done so, this might have been the end of the Revolution, for his army was in great danger of being surrounded and captured. Taking advantage of a foggy night, he transported

his troops in small boats across the East River, and, leaving a considerable force in New York, encamped with most of his army on Harlem Heights.

It was here that the patriot youth, Nathan Hale, was taken as a spy by the British and died with these magnificent words upon his lips, "I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country." Small wonder that Lord North looked upon the colonial colleges as schools of treason! For Hale was a college graduate and a schoolmaster.

§ 10. The Colonials Crossed into New Jersey.

It was soon apparent, however, that New York must be abandoned. After needless delay Howe's forces crossed from Brooklyn, and landed at Kip's Bay near the foot of the present East Twenty-third Street, three miles above the town. The American troops at the Battery had to make their retreat by way of the Greenwich road, and three hundred of them fell into the hands of the enemy. The British ships were now patrolling the East and North Rivers. It seemed that the whole island must be abandoned. After retreating northward as far as White Plains, where Howe gained a slight advantage at considerable cost, one-half of the American army was transferred to New Jersey by the circuitous route of the Highlands; and Washington made his headquarters on the Jersey side at Fort Lee, leaving General Charles Lee on the east shore with the rest of the army.

§ 11. The Colonials Crossed the Delaware into Pennsylvania.

Shortly after this, Fort Washington, at the upper end of Manhattan Island, was captured by the English, and the garrison, two thousand strong, were made prisoners. Then six thousand English troops were landed above Fort Lee

on the Jersey shore. To avoid being bottled up on the narrow neck of land between the Hudson and the Hackensack Rivers, Washington retreated to Newark, and thence to New Brunswick and Trenton, where he crossed the Delaware into Pennsylvania. During this rapid retreat Washington had sent repeated orders to Lee to join him.

Lee was insubordinate. He thought he was a better general than Washington, and wished to conduct a campaign himself without interference. These were hard days for Washington. He was unsuccessful at New York, and then he was hunted through New Jersey with his ragged, hungry,

Washington Crossing the Delaware above Trenton.

and diminishing little army. The well-furnished regulars followed constantly at Washington's heels, and almost every one thought his race was run. So, doubtless, thought Lee, and was glad of it; for he slowly got across the Hudson, and in a leisurely way proceeded to Morristown with his

men. Then retribution overtook him. He was caught in a tavern outside his own lines by a party of British dragoons, carried to New York, and put in jail. This capture left General Sullivan in command of the troops at Morristown, and he at once joined Washington. Thus re-enforced, Washington turned in his tracks, and was ready to strike back.

§ 12. Washington Won a Victory at Trenton.

The British troops in New Jersey were strung out on lines between New York and Trenton, and at the latter

The Colonials Entering Trenton.

place a body of Hessians — fifteen hundred in number — were stationed. On Christmas Eve of 1776 Washington crossed the Delaware, in spite of great difficulties from floating ice, nine miles above Trenton; and about four o'clock in the morning of Christmas Day, in two columns, — one taking the river, the other an interior road, —

marched for Trenton in a blinding snowstorm. About eight o'clock the troops reached their destination. The Hessians had been having a good time over-night, eating and drinking, and were hardly awake. Their commander, Colonel Rall, in attempting to form his troops in line of battle, fell mortally wounded. A few hundred of the light horse and infantry, who had taken alarm at the beginning of the fight, succeeded in escaping to Bordertown; but the main body, attacked on two sides, fled to the Princeton road. Finding it occupied by a regiment of Pennsylvanians ready to charge, they threw down their arms and surrendered.

A thousand prisoners and six cannon were taken by the Continentals. The American loss was, two frozen to death, two killed, and several wounded. Among the wounded was Lieutenant James Monroe, afterwards President of the United States. It added to the satisfaction which this superb strategic victory aroused among the patriots that these new prisoners were the "Hessian hirelings," who could speak no English, and were part of the twenty-two thousand subjects hired of the Grand-Duke of Hesse-Cassel in Germany, because King George could not get enough soldiers in England to fight against their American kinsfolk.

§ 13. Washington Won a Victory at Princeton, and Retreated to Morristown.

On hearing of this battle, Lord Cornwallis, who had been in command of the English troops in New Jersey, but was about to sail for England to report that the war was practically over, was ordered by General Howe to remain, and was placed in command at Princeton. He then advanced upon Trenton with a large army. Washington had nearly

as many soldiers, but half of them were fresh militia, only a few days in camp. He did not dare to cross the Delaware under fire. Leaving his camp-fires at Trenton in sight of the enemy, with a few men to keep them burning, he hurried his army around the rear of the English, and fell upon its rear guard at Princeton. Cornwallis, looking for attack in front, was surprised by this attack in the rear. Washington drove one of the three regiments of the enemy west to Trenton, and another east to New Brunswick, and captured the third in the buildings of Princeton College.

Cornwallis found Washington far too able for his generalship to overcome, and called him thereafter "the Old Fox." Pursuing him, Cornwallis drove Washington into the hills of Morristown, where he did not care to continue the warfare. From his headquarters at Morristown, Washington for some months watched, waited, and harassed the British on occasion. His reputation as a general was now made. The French were beginning to think it might be worth while to help us; and Frederick the Great, of Prussia, a military genius himself, who studied our war carefully, put forth the opïnion that Washington's New Jersey campaign was one of the most brilliant in history.

§ 14. The British Delayed and Enjoyed Themselves.

Under the watchful eye of Washington at Morristown, General Howe did not feel disposed to attempt the march to Philadelphia, his objective point, and several months elapsed without much fighting. He continued to hope for some change in affairs that would bring the war to an end by political rather than military measures. He and his retinue of officers were comfortable in New York, where

society life was gay, and where, as too often happens in war, his friends were making a great deal of money out of the army contracts for provisions and supplies. The British soldiers in New York numbered thirty thousand, which was many more than the city's ordinary population. The soldiers lived in all possible places, including schools, churches, stores, and barns. The garden farmers got the highest prices for their products. The American Tories were crowded in wherever they could get. The death-record of the prisons was appalling. Altogether the situation was extraordinarily favorable to wrong and fraud of every kind.

§ 15. Marquis de Lafayette from France Joined the Colonials.

In July, 1777, the country was interested and cheered by the arrival from France of the Marquis de Lafayette, a wealthy young nobleman of hardly twenty years. Out of sympathy with the American cause, he had fitted a vessel at his own expense, and leaving his young wife had sailed for this country with eleven other military men, among them Baron de Kalb, the German veteran, who was made a general in the American army. Lafayette also had received a military education in France, and was given a commission as general. He joined the staff of Washington, and between them a warm and lasting friendship grew up.

Marquis Jean Paul Roch Yves Gilbert Motier de Lafayette.

Born, 1757: died, 1834. General: reformer: statesman.

§ 16. The English Planned a Great Campaign.

During the summer of 1777 an ominous war cloud appeared in the North. The British General, Burgoyne, was sent from Canada with nine thousand men to invade New York, by the way of Lake Champlain. At the same time it was planned that a force of two thousand men under Colonel St. Leger should co-operate with Burgoyne. They were to ascend the St. Lawrence River to Lake Ontario, and then cross to Oswego to enlist the Indian Six Nations and any Tories that could be found. Later, they were to join Burgoyne in the valley of the Hudson. Also, Howe was expected to come up from New York City with a large force. By these campaigns the eastern half of New York was to be subjugated, and New England was to be wholly cut off from the other colonies. Howe sent General Clinton north at once, but with so few troops that after taking the forts in the Highlands of the Hudson and many thousand "rebel" rifles, he felt it necessary to retreat to New York rather than fight far larger numbers of the Continentals upon their own ground.

§ 17. Stark Won a Battle at Bennington.

The British campaign was well planned. Burgoyne descended Lake Champlain with great success, taking Fort Ticonderoga on the way, July 5, 1777. After landing at the foot of the lake, he found that he had before him a country hard to cross. Meanwhile local militia, under General Schuyler, made it still harder for him. By felling trees, and damming up streams, they so delayed his march that he was three weeks in getting to Fort Edward, twenty miles from the Lake. At that point General Burgoyne sent

out a thousand men to capture supplies stored at Bennington. They did not reach their destination. They were trapped, surrounded, assaulted, and most of them captured by Colonel John Stark and his patriot militia in shirt-sleeves, six miles out of Bennington.

§ 18. Herkimer Won an Important Battle at Oriskany.

Over in western New York, St. Leger was in great difficulties. General Herkimer fought and defeated the British, Tories, and Indians in a fierce and bloody engagement at Oriskany, but at the cost of his own brave life. Benedict Arnold, who was then dispatched against St. Leger, sent ahead so many false reports about a total defeat of Burgoyne and the tremendous forces with which the colonials were coming after him, that St. Leger was frightened back to Canada before Arnold could reach him. But he left stores and baggage behind him, which were welcome booty to the Continentals.

§ 19. Schuyler's Campaign Compelled Burgoyne to Surrender.

Burgoyne's position was now growing uncomfortable. His supplies were giving out, and he was surrounded in a hostile country by bands of militia under Schuyler, Arnold, and St. Clair. They came from all over New England and New York, and outnumbered the British two to one. About this time General Gates, an officer more distinguished in politics than in war, by order of Congress superseded Schuyler in command. The situation had been created largely by Schuyler, and Gates stepped in at the last moment to get the glory of it. Burgoyne had to

act and at once, if he meant to escape. Gates had intrenched himself on Bemis's Heights, ten miles southeast of Saratoga, and was there savagely attacked by Burgoyne. The attack failed with serious loss to the British; and a second effort, October 7, was also unsuccessful. Burgoyne then fell back upon Saratoga, and being starved out, surrendered with six thousand men. They marched all the way

At Burgoyne's Surrender, October 17, 1777.

to Boston, and then were transported by ship to Virginia, where they were kept in a camp as prisoners until the end of the war. Many, preferring the New World, never returned home. This battle and this march did more to encourage the patriots than even the victory at Trenton. Saratoga was the military crisis of the War of Independence, and helped the cause of liberty in Europe as well as in America.

§ 20. A Roundabout Movement to Philadelphia.

Meantime in August Howe had given up the plan of assisting Burgoyne, and had decided to take Philadelphia, for he was tired of life in overcrowded New York, and professed to think that the rebels might surrender if they should lose their largest and richest city where the Congress of the colonies met. But he did not care to march a hundred miles across to New Jersey, at the risk of some plot by Washington to capture at least a part of his army or commissary. So he embarked his forces on ships, sailed around the coast and up Chesapeake Bay, and landed them at Elkton, Maryland, about forty miles below Philadelphia. In all he was nearly three months on the way; was actually nearer Philadelphia when at New Brunswick than when at Elkton; and had left Washington with six thousand men in New Jersey to find him with eleven thousand in Pennsylvania. He then marched up to Brandywine Creek with eighteen thousand men, where Washington encountered him.

The battle of Brandywine, or Chad's Ford as it is sometimes called, was a defeat for Washington, as might be expected from the inequality of the forces engaged. The British under Knyphausen threatened the American center at Chad's Ford while Cornwallis made a flanking movement in a great circuit on the left, crossing the Brandywine several miles above. He did not succeed in surprising the Americans, however, as Sullivan, with the main body, marched to intercept him. The result of this battle was that Washington, with a loss of a thousand men, retreated to Chester, and then to Philadelphia, where he intrusted to Alexander Hamilton the task of "requisitioning" blankets and clothing for his needy troops, a task performed with tact and ability.

§ 21. Washington Abandoned Philadelphia.

The necessity of Washington's abandoning Philadelphia was soon evident. Congress, which had been holding its sessions there, adjourned to Lancaster, Pennsylvania, and afterwards to York. Washington retreated up the Schuylkill river a short distance; and Howe with the British forces entered the city September 25, and soon after encamped at Germantown.

The Fight at the Chew House, Germantown.

§ 22. Washington Lost the Battle of Germantown.

On October 4, Washington attacked the camp at Germantown with four columns of troops at daybreak. The British were surprised, but the attack was made difficult by the inclosures, stone fences, and houses of Germantown which broke up the lines of advancing troops. Nevertheless, a victory would have been won, had there not been a

sudden panic among the Americans, who in the darkness and fog found one of their own divisions firing upon another. The British soon rallied, the superior discipline of regulars began to tell, and the Americans were driven off with a loss of over a thousand men. The British loss was about six hundred.

Washington a few weeks later went into winter quarters at Valley Forge, twenty miles west of Philadelphia. Nor does history explain why the British never ventured out of Philadelphia to attack him there.

§ 23. France Recognized our Independence, May, 1778, and Promised Aid.

The general results of the year 1777 were in the highest degree important. The capture of Burgoyne and his six thousand men was the turning-point of the war, since it brought the French alliance. Franklin was at this time negotiating for us at Paris; and in the spring, May 2, 1778, a messenger arrived from France bearing two treaties, one of commerce and the other of alliance and defense. Great rejoicings followed throughout the country. It is said that Lafayette grasped Washington's hands, and shed tears of joy at the news. Washington celebrated the event by firing a salute that woke the echoes among the hills about Valley Forge. It was indeed a much needed encouragement. We owe national gratitude to King Louis XVI of France, half Spanish Bourbon, half Pole, that he was, for this the best deed, indeed one of the few good and wise deeds, of his life, and to Count Vergennes, his Minister and Franklin's admirer and friend. In one of the darkest periods of the war a foreign dynasty in France saved the cause of American liberty.

§ 24. The Winter at Valley Forge was Followed by the Retreat of the English from Philadelphia in 1778.

The winter at Valley Forge had been one of unparalleled hardships for the troops. Cold, hunger, and the want of clothing, had combined to make them miserable. Washington, himself distressed by the misery of his men, was compelled to endure also the malice of political enemies, and the distrust of many who had been friendly. Efforts were made to depose him from his place at the head of the

Washington at Valley Forge, 1777–8.

American army. It was at one of the lowest points in the fortune of the country during the Revolution that the French alliance with the promise of a fleet and an army came to lift us out of the slough of despondency. The first important effect of this news was to frighten the English out of Philadelphia, for the French fleet was destined

to cut them off from access to the sea by the Delaware River. Howe had been recalled to England, to answer for his failure to assist Burgoyne, and Sir Henry Clinton in command was hurrying his troops across New Jersey to New York Bay with Washington after him. The new British commander was a Tory, and meant to prosecute the war vigorously. But Howe had taken most of the British army back with him to England; and Clinton never had in all half as many men as Howe had for the subjugation of the "rebels."

Clinton's Retreat from Philadelphia.

§ 25. A Battle was Fought at Monmouth.

Baron Steuben, who had served under Frederick the Great, had drilled the colonial troops during the winter at Valley Forge, greatly to their benefit. Washington attacked the British at Monmouth Court House. But for the treachery of General Lee, who, unfortunately, had been exchanged and had returned to his American command, the patriots might have won a great victory. At a critical moment Lee, who was to make the first attack, ordered his troops to retreat. Washington, coming up with the rest of the troops, rebuked him fiercely, and ordered him to

the rear. Then he rode forward, rallied and re-formed the broken lines. In that rough encounter Moll Pitcher, a gunner's wife, seeing her husband fall, herself took his place. Her ordinary business was fortune-telling, but she will be long remembered for her bravery that afternoon. The sharp engagement that followed Washington's arrival was ended by the approach of night. Under cover of darkness the British slipped away and escaped to the Highlands of the

The Gunner's Wife at the Battle of Monmouth.

Navesink, where they found Lord Howe's fleet. It had just come on from Philadelphia, ready to carry them to New York. Lee was a traitor, worse by far than Benedict Arnold, who openly deserted to the enemy in 1780. At this time he was working in the interests of the English while holding his command as a general in the American

army. It is well to remember that there was a worse traitor than Arnold during the Revolution, for Lee never helped us in any way, while Arnold has many notable achievements to his credit on the patriot side. A court-martial convicted Lee of an "unnecessary, disorderly and shameful retreat," and suspended him from his command. Later Congress dismissed him from the army, but the full extent of his treachery was never known till the papers were found some years ago in England. These disclosed his true relations with General Howe, who hoped to put an end to the war by capturing Washington, and kindly persuading him that the rebellion was a mistake!

§ 26. George Rogers Clark Undertook to Capture the Great Northwest.

During the summer of 1778 George Rogers Clark, an intrepid and able young Virginian, persuaded Governor Patrick Henry to send him on an enterprise that was nothing less than the capture of the great Northwest beyond the Ohio. This vast wilderness was claimed by Virginia as a part of her charter dominions. There were a few forts in it, all of which, except Detroit, were garrisoned by French and Indians in the pay of the English. Hamilton, the commander at Detroit, had incited the Indians to border outrages, and Clark believed that if the British posts in the Illinois country were captured, these outrages would cease. He also expected to confirm the possession of the great region to his native State. Aided by the Virginia Governor he collected two hundred hardy frontiersmen. Embarking at Pittsburg, they floated down the Ohio through the wilderness a thousand miles, and landed in

in what is now southern Illinois. Marching to Kaskaskia a hundred miles across country, he surprised the fort while festivities and dancing were in progress. There was no resistance. "Go on with the dance," said Clark, "but remember you now dance under Virginia, not England." The French and half-breed Indians had no particular objec-

The English Recapturing Fort Vincennes, Soon to Lose it Forever.

tion to Virginia as compared with England, and accepted the new allegiance. Clark made a friend of the French priest, Gibault, who induced the French garrisons at Cahokia and Vincennes to take the oath of allegiance and to hoist the American flag. Then Clark built a fort at the Falls of the Ohio, which was the beginning of Louisville. At twenty-five years of age he had the mind of an empire-builder.

§ 27. Clark Won Fort Vincennes and All the Northwest.

Shortly after this, Hamilton, the British commander from Detroit, appeared at Vincennes, and retook it. When Clark heard of it, he set out with his two hundred men to get it back. A winter march of two hundred miles over a difficult country followed. The latter part of this march was across the overflowed lands of the Wabash, where the men waded through water and broken ice waist-deep for miles. Clark took the fort after a sharp fight, and the stars and stripes went up at Fort Vincennes to stay. With but two hundred men George Rogers Clark had conquered the great Northwest, not as he supposed for Virginia only, but for all the United States.

§ 28. The War Raged in the South.

After the British retired from Philadelphia to New York, May, 1778, there were no important military operations for two years in the middle colonies. It was a period, however, stained by some of the bloodiest outrages of the whole war. In July, there occurred in Pennsylvania, the massacre by British soldiers, Tories, and Indians, of all the inhabitants of the Wyoming Valley. Similar parties made descents upon towns and villages of New England, New York, Virginia, and the Carolinas. The English, finding they could make no progress in the more thickly settled colonies of the North, had turned their attention chiefly to the South. At the close of the year 1778, the British captured Savannah, and over-ran the thinly settled colony of Georgia. The royal governor was reinstated; and General Lincoln, in an attempt to recapture Savannah with the aid of the French fleet in the fall of 1779, was disastrously defeated.

§ 29. General Lincoln was Captured in South Carolina.

In the following spring, 1780, Sir Henry Clinton led an expedition against Charleston, and captured the city with General Lincoln and his whole army of about seven thousand local militia. Expeditions were sent out through South Carolina until it was almost wholly conquered. Clinton then returned to New York, and left Cornwallis at Charleston to hold and extend his conquest. After this the chief resistance to the British in South Carolina was that of the brave partisan leaders, Marion, Sumter, and

The Medal Voted to General Anthony Wayne by Congress.

Pickens, who took to the mountains and the swamps, and harried the foe with constant raids.

§ 30. Anthony Wayne Took Stony Point.

In the summer of 1779, marauding expeditions were sent by the English from New York into New England. One in particular, under Tryon, burned Norwalk and Fairfield, plundered New Haven, and at Sag Harbor was getting ready for a descent upon New London when it was

suddenly called back by alarm at the capture of Stony Point on the Hudson by the Americans. The works at Stony Point, planned by the Americans for the protection of King's Ferry on the Hudson, had fallen into the hands of the British in an unfinished condition. They mounted guns and maintained a garrison there, to the great annoyance of the surrounding country. Washington ordered Anthony Wayne to attempt its capture. Two columns of troops surprised and took the fort at midnight, killing sixty, capturing five hundred and fifty men, and losing in killed and wounded about one hundred, July 16, 1779. This raid served its chief purpose as a diversion, for Stony Point was soon after abandoned. Congress voted a medal to General Wayne for his brilliant exploit, as indeed it voted medals to many heroes of the war, when it was not too busy criticising and otherwise discouraging their constant patriotism. It was an unfortunate feature of the war that the quality of the men in Congress constantly declined.

§ 31. 1780 Marked the Lowest Point in the War, and Recorded the Treason of Benedict Arnold.

The year 1780 was the gloomiest of the Revolutionary War. The Continental currency was discredited almost to the zero point. It was impossible to pay the soldiers, or to provide food, clothing, and ammunition. Business was almost at an end, and the people were discontented. Chaotic conditions prevailed in many parts of the country; and at times, except for the financial ability of Robert Morris, the Philadelphia banker, the operations of war must have ceased for want of money. Rich as George Washington was in lands and goods, his own money was entirely gone. He

had to pay a physician's bill by giving him one of his family horses; but his confidence in the patriot success

Head Quarters Robinsons
Hare Sept. 22d 1780

Permit Mr. John Anderson to pass the Guards to the White Plains, or below, if he chuses He being on Public Business by my Direction

B Arnold M. Gen.

André's Pen-Portrait of Himself; and the Pass Given to Him by Arnold.

was so strong that he was buying even at that period "on credit" as a speculation rich valley lands on the Mohawk River in New York. Upon that hopefulness, upon that iron will to win out, the fortunes of mankind were turning.

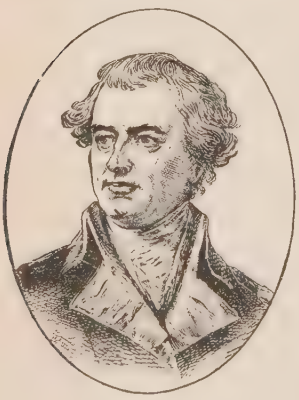
In the summer of this year the country was shocked by the treason of Benedict Arnold. In 1778 he had been put in command of Philadelphia. There he married a Loyalist wife, and his political sympathies began to change. He had already felt himself ill-treated by Congress, which had disallowed certain of his expense accounts in previous campaigns. He lived an extravagant life in Philadelphia, and, getting into financial difficulties, endeavored to extricate himself by speculations in privateering that involved him in further trouble.

An investigation was made, and he was ordered by Congress to be reprimanded by the head of the army — an unpleasant duty, which was discharged by Washington as considerately as possible, for he thought highly of Arnold's military services and abilities. But the iron entered into Arnold's soul. He sought the command at West Point on the Hudson to betray it. In this treachery Major André, of the English army, was employed by General Clinton and General Arnold as the intermediary. He was caught, and the papers found on him disclosed the plot. Tried by court-martial, he was executed as a spy. André was a Frenchman, all of whose compatriots in America were helping the Continentals. He had been the head of all the gayeties in New York and Philadelphia when Howe was in command, and was the unfortunate victim of circumstances.

Arnold escaped to a British war-vessel, received money and a commission in the army, and then fought against his country. In one of his raids, that into Virginia, Thomas Jefferson offered $25,000 for his head, so bitter was the feeling of the patriots against a hero turned traitor for money and the hope of station. Arnold died in obscurity in London, rich, but without friends and without honor.

§ 32. The Americans Lost the Battle of Camden.

In 1780, General Gates was appointed to the command of the Southern department. He was joined by De Kalb with fifteen hundred Continentals, and by various bodies of militia, which brought his total force to six thousand men. At Camden, South Carolina, he encountered Cornwallis, and suffered the worst defeat that ever befell an American army. The Continentals made a stand, and the brave De Kalb was mortally wounded; but the rest of the army, to use Gates's own language, "ran like a torrent," and Gates himself with the help of a horse ran still faster and without a halt till Charlotte was reached, sixty miles away. He seems to have felt it his duty to lead his troops in retreat, although he was never known to lead a charge upon the enemy. When some of his flying soldiers caught up with him at Charlotte, Gates with other officers made some effort to reorganize the remnants of the army. About a thousand men were collected; but Congress had heard of Camden, and ordered an investigation. Gates was then removed from the Continental army.



Nathanael Greene.

Born, 1742; died, 1786. General, Continental Army.

§ 33. Nathanael Greene Took Command in the South.

As successor to Gates, Washington named General Greene, one of the bravest and ablest military men of the times.

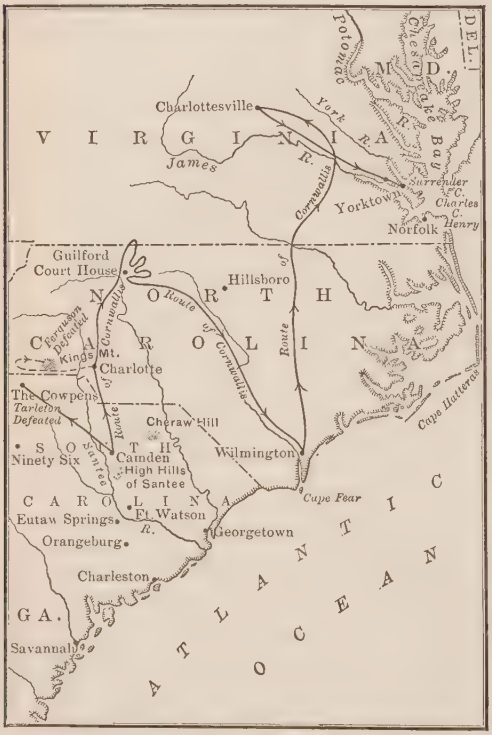
Shortly before Greene took command, Cornwallis sent Major Ferguson to cut off the retreat of a body of patriots from Georgia into

North Carolina. Ferguson ventured too far into the mountains and presently found himself confronted by a strong force of mountaineers and backwoodsmen under Shelby and Sevier, afterwards the first governors of Kentucky and Tennessee. He retreated to King's Mountain on the border line of the Carolinas, and there, after a brave defence in which he was killed, his force of a thousand men surrendered. Greene arrived at Charlotte, December 2, 1780, and took command of a thousand ragged and unpaid soldiers. There was no money in the military chest, and the service of these men was forced by impressment.

§ 34. Daniel Morgan Defeated Tarleton at Cowpens.

Undismayed by circumstances, Greene at once began active operations. Under him, at this time, was Daniel Morgan, the best leader of light-armed troops that the Revolution produced. Greene sent him to threaten the British posts at Ninety-Six and Augusta. At the same time Cornwallis sent his best officer, the famous Colonel Tarleton, to meet him. The battle of Cowpens followed. It was a fine example of strategy. Half of Morgan's force was made up of South Carolina militia, the other half of Continentals and a troop of horse. The militia were drawn up in line by themselves, and fled at the first onset, pursued by Tarleton. Next, the Continentals, drawn up on one side, made a retrograde movement that in a measure distracted the British from the pursuit, then suddenly faced about, pouring a deadly volley at thirty yards, and charged. The cavalry also charged upon the British horsemen who were after the flying militia, and at once the pursuers were being pursued, the militia were rallied, and Tarleton's whole force was put to rout. The British lost over six hundred men, killed

and prisoners, with all their baggage and artillery. Tarleton, with a few horsemen, escaped to Cornwallis, who was not many miles away. Morgan's loss was less than eighty. Well aware that Cornwallis, with three men to his one, would soon be after him, Morgan now retreated rapidly into North Carolina to join Greene. Cornwallis, in the ensuing game of strategy, was led a chase across North Carolina, where he was cut off from his base of supplies at Charleston, and had to live on the country, as also did Greene and his forces.



Cornwallis's Campaign, Camden to Yorktown.

§ 35. Cornwallis Went North.

At Guilford, forty miles south of the Virginia line, Greene turned and fought. The battle, while won by the British, was disastrous to them. Their loss was larger than Greene's; and Cornwallis soon after thought it best to join Phillips and Arnold, who were ravaging Virginia.

§ 36. Greene Won a Battle at Eutaw Springs.

Greene returned to South Carolina. There he hoped to drive Rawdon from Camden, where he was stationed with a thousand men. He fought Rawdon a drawn battle at Hobkirk's Hill, April 26, 1781, and after a series of minor

At the Battle of Eutaw Springs.

operations, which nearly cleared the British out of South Carolina, fought the battle of Eutaw Springs, September 8, with Colonel Stuart, the successor of Rawdon, who had returned to Europe. The result of this battle was practically a victory. The British forces thereafter were shut up in Charleston, and the Carolinas were cleared of them.

§ 37. The Tories Fought for the King.

This campaign of Greene's was a peculiar one in that it was a war within a war. The Tories were numerous in

the two States, and civil war between the Whig and Tory population went on during the whole time of the British occupation. The partisan leaders, Marion, Sumter, and Pickens, with their patriot bands, fought the Tories and the British in a continuous guerilla warfare. Greene took advantage of every possible element in his campaign, and, though never brilliantly victorious, must be credited with driving the British out of the Carolinas.

§ 38. Cornwallis Surrendered at Yorktown, 1781.

Meanwhile Cornwallis in Virginia found himself at the head of eight thousand men. Under orders from Clinton at New York, he seized and fortified Yorktown, on the peninsula between the James and York rivers, where he could be reached by British ships. At first he was opposed in Virginia by Lafayette only with about four thousand men. Washington, re-enforced by a French army of six thousand men under Count Rochambeau, early in 1781 began active operations about New York, keeping Clinton in a constant state of alarm; but in August the arrival of a French frigate with the news that De Grasse with a large fleet would soon arrive in Chesapeake Bay, caused a quick change in the American plans. Clinton was kept in daily expectation of an attack, and did not learn that he had been deceived until Washington and Rochambeau were on the way to Yorktown with several days' start. When Clinton discovered the purpose of this move, he tried to draw off a part of the American troops by sending an expedition under Arnold, which plundered and burned New London, but nothing could divert Washington from his purpose. The French and the American forces took shipping at the head

of Chesapeake Bay, and sailed down to Yorktown, where De Grasse blockaded the approaches from the sea. The allied forces soon had Yorktown shut off on the land side, and Cornwallis was securely fastened in his camp. After three weeks of siege and fighting, during which the well-uniformed French and the ragged Continentals vied with each other in brave deeds, Cornwallis gave up the game of war, and surrendered October 19, 1781. This practically ended the war. Lord North, the British prime minister, when he heard the news, threw up his hands, and cried, "It is all over."

Paul Jones (John Paul).

Born, 1747; died, 1792. Scotch Sea-captain: American Patriot: Russian Admiral.

§ 39. A Great Sea-fight was Won Across the Sea.

In the same year, 1773, that Thomas Paine of England went to Pennsylvania to prepare the American mind for liberty at the suggestion of Benjamin Franklin, John Paul Jones of Scotland went to Virginia. In 1775 he was made second in command of the new and feeble American navy. After many brilliant

exploits in small ships, he secured, 1779, a fair ship, hitherto engaged in the French East India trade, with a little fleet of smaller ships. In his crews he had thirty Americans. The rest were men of all nationalities, even Malays. He named his flag-ship the *Bon Homme Richard* in honor of Benjamin Franklin's "Poor Richard," and in that ship defeated, in a terrific fight, the British *Serapis*, twice as strong. This was the crowning victory of his great career, which more than justified all of Franklin's effort to get a navy for him. No other event of the War of Independence added more to the advancement of the American interests in European courts. It especially pleased France, the only nation that had recognized American independence. We must add to the long list of the names of foreigners who did splendid service for America, — Steuben, De Kalb, Montgomery, Lafayette, — that of the naval hero, Paul Jones, and we must also add to the many achievements of Franklin, that of keeping Paul Jones in the American service. When nobles and gentlemen in Europe criticised America for employing in high stations men of humble birth, Franklin used to refer to this great sea victory. Said he, "Captain Paul Jones ever loved close fighting."

§ 40. Prisons and Prison-ships were Scenes of Death.

The number of men slain in battle on both sides during the Revolutionary War was not half of the number that perished in the prisons and prison-ships maintained by the British, especially in the latter period of the war, after the recall of Sir William Howe. In New York City, churches and sugar-houses were packed with patriot prisoners suffocating for want of air, starving for want of food, dying for want of

medicine. In the East River were the prison-ships, miserable hulks, in one of which a thousand prisoners were confined at a time, and from which eleven thousand men were brought forth dead. Such was the fearful result of the avarice of the prison-contractors, and of the indifference of the British army-lords to the sufferings of others. From such horrible scenes, we, who live in the twentieth century, turn with averted faces; but let us remember the price paid by thousands on thousands to make this nation independent, with liberty, justice, equality of rights, and opportunity for each and all. And let us be fair to those who fought against us, remembering that all this inhumanity was the dreadful reprisal upon the patriots for their treatment of the United Empire Loyalists. War is unspeakably awful, and immeasurably evil. Hitherto, it has been a part of the price of human progress.

§ 41. England Made Peace.

The English people, heart-sick with the story of prison-ships, army corruption, victories of Americans on land and sea, and fearful lest the war should extend into Europe by increased activity of France, at last recognized that the war was a failure, overturned the Tory government, and put the Whigs in power. Desultory hostilities of no great importance continued for a few months. On April 19, 1783, the eighth anniversary of the battle of Lexington, Washington formally proclaimed the cessation of hostilities, and the treaty of peace with England was finally signed in Paris, September 3, of that year. On November 3 the American patriot army was disbanded, and on November 25 the last British soldier sailed away from New York.

§ 42. Causes of the Patriot Victory.

It is well to notice the real military significance of this war. Washington, Schuyler, Greene, and the other patriot leaders, won again and again by their masterly strategy, as seen in Washington's own victories at Trenton and Princeton, and in his march and siege in the Yorktown campaign. The patriots were fine marksmen, but miserably equipped, and often starved and almost naked. The terms of enlistment were short, and there were many deserters. Though there were many men inclined at times to mutiny, there were few cowards among them. The Continentals lost many more battles than they won. On the other hand, Howe, Burgoyne, Clinton, and Cornwallis finally lost because of their blunders and of their indecision in times of crisis. Howe was a procrastinator, and had little heart for the work of subduing those whom he regarded of fellow Englishmen. Burgoyne was badly supported by Howe.

As for Clinton and Cornwallis, they never had enough troops to defeat the Americans with their French allies. Besides, there was a divided nation behind them. England made several very serious mistakes of policy, such as employing the Hessian hirelings, the Indian savages, and the renegade Arnold. All of these measures not only imbittered the patriots, and also made friends in Europe and even among the neutral colonials for the patriot cause; they alienated the sympathy of the Whigs in England and in her army in America. The French alliance turned the scale, not only by the actual assistance given to the colonials, but also by threatening another Old World war, for which England was neither eager nor prepared. And yet even without the support of France Washington would

never have been defeated. He would have retired into the Appalachian Mountains, and have made there a nation, as he often planned to do in the darkest days of Valley Forge.

In the end England was not so much hopelessly beaten in actual war, as convinced of the necessity sooner or later of letting her colonial children go free to set up their own national establishment. Never before or since did such blows as even the surrenders at Saratoga and Yorktown compel England to end a war. It is indeed true that in 1783 England had both more men and more money for the prosecution of the war than in 1775. Rather England ended it as a moral issue: not overwhelming defeat, but right and wisdom advised the peace.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. What reasons are there to call our War of Independence a great war?
2. In what colonial States was it fought, and how long did it last?
3. What place was the first scene of bloodshed?
4. Describe the retreat from Concord.
5. Who were some of the leaders of the minute men and volunteers?
6. Who took Ticonderoga and Crown Point? With what benefit to the patriots?
7. Describe the siege of Boston.
8. Describe the battle of Bunker Hill.
9. What were the results of the battle?
10. Describe the movements that forced the British out of Boston.
11. Describe the campaign against Canada.
12. What victory was won by Moultrie in June, 1776?
13. Describe the battle of Long Island.
14. Describe Washington's retreat; and its various stages.
15. Describe the victory at Trenton.
16. Describe the battle of Princeton.
17. Where did Washington establish himself after these victories? What was the new opinion now formed of him?
18. What were the feelings of the patriots regarding the Hessians?

19. Discuss Sir William Howe, his action on the field of Bunker Hill, his retreat to Halifax, and his occupation of New York, 1776–1778.

20. Give an account of Lafayette.

21. What was the British plan of campaign for the summer of 1778?

22. What did Howe do to prevent its success?

23. Describe Burgoyne's advance from Canada.

24. Give an account of the battle of Bennington.

25. How was St. Leger forced to retreat to Canada?

26. What causes led to Burgoyne's surrender?

27. What were its effects upon the patriot cause?

28. Describe the battle of Brandywine.

29. Where did Congress hold session during the British occupation of New York?

30. Give an account of the battle of Germantown.

31. Give an account of the French treaties of 1778.

32. Describe the winter at Valley Forge.

33. What was the effect of the treaty of alliance upon the British occupation of Philadelphia?

34. Give an account of the battle of Monmouth.

35. Who was a worse traitor than Arnold?

36. Give an account of Clark's taking of Kaskaskia.

37. Complete the account of Clark's winning of the Great Northwest.

38. Give an account of the events near Savannah, 1778–1779.

39. Describe the taking of Charleston, and expeditions thereafter.

40. Give an account of the victory at Stony Point.

41. Why is 1780 called the gloomiest period of the war?

42. Describe the treason of Benedict Arnold.

43. Give an account of the battle of Camden.

44. Describe Greene's campaign in the Carolinas.

45. Describe the battle of Cowpens.

46. Describe the movements of Cornwallis.

47. Describe Greene's movements after Cornwallis withdrew to Virginia.

48. Give an account of the strategy that led to the surrender of Cornwallis.

49. Give an account of Paul Jones.

50. Why did England give up the war?

51. What mistakes did England make in the prosecution of the war?

52. What flags have waved over Vincennes?

53. Give reasons for the patriot victory.

QUESTIONS OF SUMMARY.

I. Review the British military occupation of the great cities : — Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Savannah, Charleston.

II. Make a chronological list of the important battles of the war.

III. Make lists of the patriot victories, of the British victories, and of the doubtful battles, discussing the points involved.

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Contemporaries*, Vol. II., pp. 45–632.
Hart's *Source Readers*, No. 2, pp. 191–309.
Hart's *Source Book*, pp. 145–160.
Fisher's *True Story of the Revolution.*
Fiske's *The American Revolution.*
Lodge's *War of the Revolution.*
Smith's *Prologue of the Revolution.*
Codman's *Campaign against Canada.*
Carrington's *Battles of the American Revolution.*
Tower's *Lafayette in the American Revolution.*
Bryant and Gay's (Scribners') *Popular History of the United States.*
Balch's *The French in America during the War of Independence.*
Van Tyne's *Loyalists.*
Hart's *Formation of the Union*, pp. 69–109.
Bolton's *The Private Soldier Under Washington.*
Hinsdale's *How to Teach and Study History*, Chap. XVIII.
Mace's *Methods in History*, Part Two, American Periods.
Bancroft's *History of the United States*, Vol. V.
Tomlinson's *Stories of the American Revolution.*
Guerber's *Story of the Thirteen Colonies.*

Consult biographies of the great men of the period, British, French, and American ; especially Morse's *Benjamin Franklin.* Irving's *Washington.* Wilson's *Washington.* Lodge's *Washington.*

Consult also Harper's *Encyclopædia of U. S. History* for the battles, Larned's *History for Ready Reference*, Vol. V., pp. 3217–3289, and the standard encyclopædias upon the various topics of the text.

See also Readings, pp. 230–231.

The amount of literature upon this heroic period is immense. For a list of books, part fiction, part history, see Appendix VII. The entire value of historical fiction is in its development of the atmosphere or spirit of the times. No reliance can be placed upon the details recited.

TOPICS FOR INQUIRY OR DISCUSSION.

1. What became of the several hundred thousand Loyalists at the beginning of the war?

2. What became of the exiled Loyalists?

3. The "Hessian hirelings" who preferred America as a home, and who never went back to Hesse-Cassel.

4. The Story of Henry Knox; of Israel Putnam; of Joseph Warren; of Daniel Morgan, and other heroes.

5. The Leaders of the French: Lafayette, Rochambeau, De Grasse, etc. See Bancroft, Vol. VI., p. 32, for suggestions.

6. The Minute Men.

7. Washington's Headquarters at Morristown.

8. The Winter at Valley Forge.

9. André, the Delightful Man of Society, Artist, Poet.

10. Nathan Hale, the Patriot Spy.

11. Lafayette.

12. "Green Mountain Boys:" Admission of Vermont to Congress.

13. How Herkimer defeated an ambuscade at Oriskany, bloodiest battle of the war; that is, largest proportion of killed and wounded among the combatants engaged.

14. The Battles in which over 5,000 troops in all were engaged.

15. Franklin in Paris.

16. George Rogers Clark.

17. "Mad" Anthony Wayne.

18. Nathanael Greene: John Sullivan: Benjamin Lincoln.

19. Congress and its Interferences with Washington's Plans.

20. The "Partisan" Leaders, Marion, Sumter, Pickens.

21. Lord North's Plans and Disappointments.

22. The Investigation of Howe's Conduct by Parliament.

23. Was Trenton, Saratoga, or Yorktown the most important military event of the war?

24. The State of Franklin in the land of "the Western Waters."

25. The Services of the Many Patriot Soldiers of Foreign Birth in the American Army: e.g., Montgomery, Hamilton, De Kalb.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1774. Occupation of Boston by the British.
1775. Lexington and Concord.
1775. Battle of Bunker Hill.

1775–1776. Campaign to win Canada.
1776. Evacuation of Boston by the British.
1776. Declaration of Independence.
1776. Battle of Long Island.
1776. Battle of Trenton.
1776–1780. Each of the Colonies organizes as an Independent State.
1777. Arrival of Lafayette, De Kalb, Steuben, and French soldiers.
1777. Surrender of British at Saratoga.
1777. Battle of Brandywine.
1777. Occupation of Philadelphia by the British.
1778. Alliance with France.
1778. Evacuation of Philadelphia by the British.
1778. Battle of Monmouth.
1778–1779. Seizure of the Great Northwest by the Colonials.
1779. Occupation of Charleston by the British.
1779. Capture of Stony Point.
1779. Battle of the Bon Homme Richard and the Serapis.
1780. Treason of Benedict Arnold.
1781. Battle of Cowpens.
1781. Surrender of the British at Yorktown.
1783. Treaty of Peace.
1783. British Evacuation of Charleston, Savannah, New York.

NOTE. — History without war is no history. War tests the great qualities of peoples : their vigor, honesty, persistence, ideals. While war is always deplorable, its outcome has often been, as in the case of our War of Independence, a blessing to the nations engaged in it. The best features of our civilized life have been won by war, by the blood-stained martyrs and heroes whose arguments have been their swords. War is unquestionably awful : but there is a thing more awful, that is unrighteous and cowardly peace.

MAIN PERIODS IN UNITED STATES HISTORY.

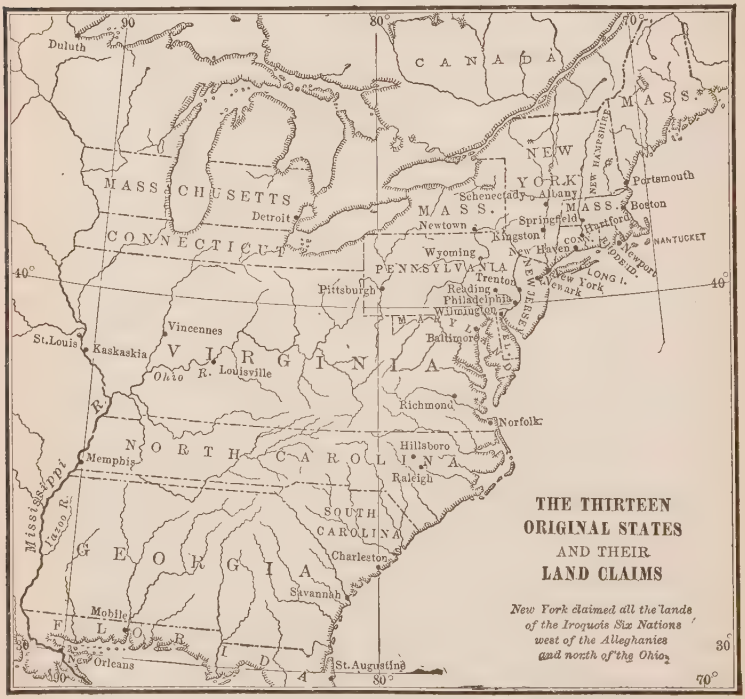
1492–1607. Period of Discovery and Exploration.
1607–1775. Colonial Period.
1775–1789. Period of War and Distress.
1789–1904. National Period.

CHAPTER III.

THE STORY OF EXPANSION.

§ 1. We Have Made Five Separate Additions to the Contiguous Continental United States.

By the treaty of Paris, 1783, which established the international independence of the United States of America,



a new nation was confirmed in its claims to all the territory from the Atlantic Ocean on the east to the Mississippi River on the west, and from the Great Lakes on the north

to the Spanish dominions on the south. Apparently this was a grant of additional territory beyond the settled territory of the thirteen original States, for the land west of the Appalachians was not a subject of main contention between the colonies and the mother country. That treaty left several points in dispute; viz., the line of the Spanish territory in the South; the exact line in the Northeast beyond Maine; the right of the British to maintain forts along the Ohio River and elsewhere for the protection of the fur-trade and early settlements. The last question was settled amicably by the withdrawal of the garrisons in 1794. The other questions were settled by treaties.

The second addition of territory beyond the boundaries of the original States, was that of the Louisiana Province, in 1803. At the time of this cession by France the boundaries of the Louisiana Province were not definitely fixed. They did not include the Pacific side of the Rocky Mountains, though the United States based its claim to the Oregon country upon the Louisiana Purchase; and this claim was recognized by Great Britain at the time of the settlement of the Oregon boundary dispute, as well as by Mexico at the time of the Mexican cession.

The third annexation of the territory was the result of a purchase from Spain, when Florida was ceded in 1819.

The fourth addition of territory was the annexation of the sovereign separate nation of Texas. After the annexation, in 1845, Texas, in consideration of ten million dollars, ceded to the United States all her claims to the northwest of her present boundaries.

The fifth addition of territory was of a small area known as the Gadsden Purchase, 1853,

The settlement upon the forty-ninth parallel of latitude as our northern boundary, 1846, gave us undisputed title to the Oregon region, which, by right of discovery, belonged to Spain. It is customary, though not strictly correct, to call this a separate addition of territory. These annexations and cessions, together with the treaties fixing the boundaries, settled the limits of the contiguous Continental United States.

§ 2. We have Added Also Other Lands and Islands.

Next, in 1867, we purchased Alaska, though it was not formally occupied until some five years afterward. Russia's claim to Alaska was by right of discovery. The withdrawal of this great power from the New World left North America in the control of the English speaking nations, for it took place just at the time of the withdrawal of France from Mexico.

The Spanish war in 1898 added vastly to the responsibility of our nation. With the Philippine Islands we acquired a large territory, and eight million of subjects, five thousand miles to the west of the Pacific coast of the Continental United States, and became one of the great powers in Asia. With Porto Rico in the Atlantic Ocean we acquired a million people, whose relation to us is rather that of citizens than subjects. At about the same time the independent state of Hawaii was annexed. We have since added several islands as coaling stations for our ships of war in the Pacific Ocean.

§ 3. **The United States is an Empire of Fifty Provinces.**

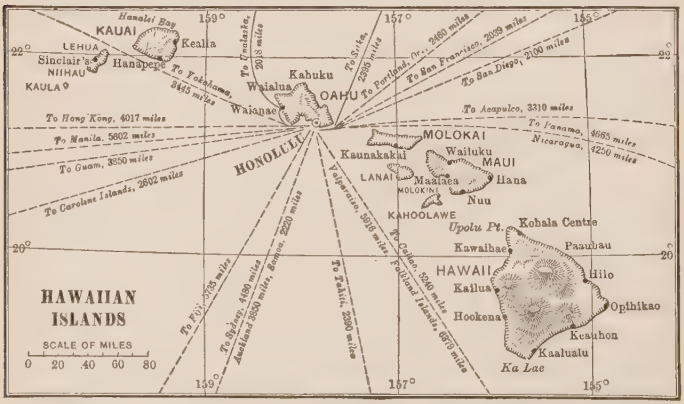
At present the United States stretches nearly nine thousand miles, — from Porto Rico to Luzon, — or more than one-third of the way around the world. Besides these

lands completely in the control of the United States, we maintain protectorates over Spanish-speaking Cuba, the rich and beautiful island south of Florida; and over a portion of Samoa, south of the Philippine Islands. Our interest

in Liberia, a republic of Negroes on the west coast of Africa amounts almost to a protectorate. Including our States, Territories, Colonies, Dependencies, and Protectorates, there are more than fifty separate governments within the great central government of the United States, whose Capital is Washington. This democratic empire, one of the first four empires of the world, — the British, the Russian, the Chinese, and the American, — is the product of the people's character, intelligence, and institutions in a land of wonderful resources.

§ 4. The States Surrendered Their Land-Claims to the United States.

To the Confederation of the States which preceded the Constitution, we owe the settlement of two very difficult questions. Seven of the original thirteen States claimed



lands beyond the Appalachians. The six States which had no such claims refused to transact business as a nation until the other seven States surrendered their claims to the

Union. If Massachusetts, New York, Connecticut, Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia had maintained their claims, there would have been conflicts between them, because their claims interfered with each other; and they would have had too great an influence in the future nation, as compared with the States that had no Western provinces.

§ 5. The Northwest Territory was Treated as a Region Developing into States, Not as a Subject Province.

The other vexed problem that the Continental Congress was able to solve was respecting the nature of the government in the Northwest Territory, formed by the surrender of the claims of the individual States. At that time the policy of the United States with reference to all lands not yet made into States, was to treat them as regions in the course of becoming States. Our Territories are not subject provinces; they are comparatively independent political units, and each sends its delegate to Congress. Our Constitution makes each State as well as each citizen, self-governing. Our forefathers have manifested a genius for the organization of States; and our Federal Nation is the true prototype of the greatly to be desired democratic Commonwealth of mankind, toward which all history moves.

§ 6. Thirty-two States Have Been Admitted Into the Union Since 1789.

Of the forty-five States now in the Union, three were carved out of the original thirteen States. New York surrendered Vermont; Massachusetts surrendered Maine; and Virginia in the time of the Civil War lost West Virginia by secession.

The first State beyond the Appalachian Mountains to be admitted into the Union was Kentucky. Her settlers had come very largely from Virginia and the Carolinas. These were the first of our Western pioneers. Tennessee soon followed. The story of the settlement of each of these States relates deeds of the greatest heroism and fortitude. The early settlers followed the rivers down stream. In many cases whole settlements were wiped out by an attack of the Indians, or by the hardships of the winters.

Ohio, to the north of these, was the next State. Its southern settlers came from Kentucky and Virginia. Into the northern part of the State came settlers from Connecticut, New York, and Massachusetts. The two classes of settlers met at Columbus, but the transmigration of peoples within the boundaries of Ohio long since made the population homogeneous.

Louisiana was the next State to be admitted. This was the first State to be carved out of the Louisiana Province. It contained the very important city of New Orleans. Its population was very largely French and Spanish by descent, but immigration from the east and north long ago made the English-speaking people the dominant element.

Indiana was the next State to be admitted. Its settlers in greater part came from Kentucky and Virginia, though the migratory New York and Ohio pioneer was a common character in the early settlements. For more than a generation there were many slaves in Southern Indiana and Illinois.

Next came Mississippi, settled very largely from Georgia and the Carolinas. Illinois followed, like Indiana, getting its settlers from the South and East.

Then came Alabama, filling in the gap between Mississippi, Tennessee, and Georgia, which were already States. Maine, which had been a province of Massachusetts, followed, completing our coast line of States north of Florida.

The second State to be carved out of the Louisiana Province was Missouri, whose settlers came chiefly from Illinois, Kentucky, and Tennessee. Over its admission a great controversy arose, in which the South tried to make slavery legal in all the Territories and in such States as voted for slavery.

Not for fifteen years was another State admitted. Then Michigan and Arkansas were received, — a Slave and a Free State to balance each other, as Louisiana had balanced with Indiana, Mississippi with Illinois, Alabama with Maine. Florida and Texas were accepted in 1845, completing our entire Eastern and Southern coast line. These were the first States, many of whose settlers came in by the new steam railroads. Earlier States had received some settlers who came by the new steam-packets of the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers.

Then came Iowa, to the north of Missouri, a State settled very largely by Northern people.

Wisconsin followed in 1848 with much the same kind of population as Michigan. With the admission of this State all the territory whose independence was acknowledged by the treaty of 1783 had now entered the Union of States.

The next State to enter the Union was California, — the first Pacific State, and also the first State in the territory secured by the Mexican cession. Its people came chiefly from the Northern States, over land or by sea.

Minnesota was next admitted; so that in 1858 all the

territory touching the banks of the Mississippi River on either side had been formed into States. This was, perhaps, the first State that had felt the great new immigration movement from Europe.

In the succeeding year, 1859, Oregon was admitted. Its settlers had come almost entirely from the Northern States.

Kansas, which had been the scene of terrible social disturbances over the slavery question, was admitted in 1861. Some of its settlers had come from the South, but many had been sent into the State by the Northern Kansas Settlement Companies.

Then came West Virginia, — the fruits of the dissensions of the Civil War. Nevada followed in 1864, and Nebraska in 1867. By the time of the settlement of Nebraska, the movement of the Southern people out of the South practically ceased. All the later States have been settled chiefly by people in the regions to the East.

In the Centennial Year, 1876, Colorado was admitted. Gold-hunters brought this State into the Union, as they had California twenty-six years before, and Nevada twelve years before.

The year 1889 saw four States added, very largely for political reasons. These were North and South Dakota, Montana, and Washington. In the following year Idaho and Wyoming also were added. The addition of these six States greatly increased the influence of the North — especially of the Northwest — in the national government, since each State has two Senators in the national Senate. The populations of these six States are the most recent in their development of all the peoples within our boundaries. They were brought into the States by railroads. Many

of them have been immigrants recently arrived from Sweden, Norway, and Germany.

Utah was admitted in 1896, partly in the hope that the State would be better able to suppress the polygamy of the Mormons than the territorial government had been. There were many foreign-born people among its citizens, coming chiefly from the North of Europe.

§ 7. Mason and Dixon's Line.

In the history of our country, the State boundary line between Pennsylvania and Maryland has played a very important part. Mason and Dixon were astronomers who also did surveying, and were employed by the lords proprietors of Pennsylvania and Maryland (1763–7) to establish the boundary between the two colonies. In the course of history Mason and Dixon's line, 39° 43′ N., became the boundary between the free-labor and the slave-labor States. As such, popular sentiment in the North even as early as 1820, the time of the Missouri Compromise, was against allowing slavery north of that line. The Compromise established a new latitude, 36° 30′ N., as the boundary line. The Dred Scott decision of 1857 destroyed the Compromise by making slavery legal North as well as South in the Territories.

§ 8. The Remaining Territories are Likely to be Admitted Soon Into the Union.

There are now left within the boundaries of the contiguous Continental United States four Territories, all in the Southwest, midway between the Mississippi River and the Pacific Ocean. These are the Indian Territory, more than half of whose settlers are white, and whose Indians now hold land in severalty, Oklahoma, Arizona, and New Mexico. The

populations of these Territories being equal in point of numbers and in point of quality to those of many States admitted previously, will secure within a few years admission into the Union of States.

§ 9. Comparative Sizes of Eastern, Central, and Western States.

Texas is the first State in the Union in size, and the sixth in population. Most of the original thirteen States are small compared with those admitted later. It is an interesting speculation whether the future will see some of the small Eastern States combined and some of the large Western States divided, so that all may approximate the Central States in size.

§ 10. Seven States Have Each Larger Populations Than the Nation Had in 1776.

In the United States to-day there are seven separate States whose individual populations are larger than was the entire population of the United States during the Revolutionary War. These seven States are New York, whose metropolis, New York City, has a million people more than all the colonies had in 1776, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Missouri, Ohio, Texas, and Massachusetts. In the nineteenth century twenty million people came from the Old World to the New. Comparatively few of them settled south of Maryland or beyond the Missouri.

§ 11. We Have Received Most Foreigners Gladly.

In the early days of our history, from 1607 to 1700 most of our people came from England; but a few came from Scotland, Ireland, Germany, France, Portugal, Spain, Canada, and Mexico. From 1700 to 1830 our new settlers came almost entirely from the British Isles. Since then we have had

over four million immigrants from Ireland alone; in a single decade, 1850–1860, after a great potato famine and other troubles, a million Irish came to America. From the island of Great Britain we have had since 1830 five million immigrants, of whom a million and a quarter came in the decade 1880–1890. Germany has sent us over five million immigrants, of whom a million and a half came in the decade 1880–1890. Norway and Sweden have contributed a million and a half persons, over six hundred thousand of whom cast in their lot with Americans in the decade 1880–1890. Austria has sent us a million, most of them since 1890, Italy as many, and Russia nearly as many, chiefly Jews. We received a million new people in 1903 alone.

In 1903 there were over twelve million persons of foreign birth in our country, nearly all of whom were or intended to become American citizens as provided in our Constitution and in the laws of the Nation and of the States. Now we get immigrants from nearly every country in the world except China. There was indeed a peril lest millions of the Chinese should come over: their immigration was forbidden by laws passed by Congress in 1882 and 1888. How many Negroes were imported against their will from 1619 to 1808 no one knows accurately. After 1808 till 1861, especially in 1858 to 1860 because of the Dred Scott decision, some Negroes were smuggled in every year. Probably three quarters of a million Negroes were brought to America. These immigrants and the aborigines have caused three race-questions, — the red men or Indian, the yellow or Chinese, the black or the Negro. The first has been solved by wars, legislation, and education; the second was done away with by exclusion; and the third is being solved.

§ 12. The Center of Population Moves Steadily West.

The middle point of the United States is at Kearney, Nebraska. The middle point of the present population is near Indianapolis. It may reach a point in Missouri within the twentieth century. It is possible that with the progress of irrigation in the Rocky Mountain region our densest population a century hence may be there in the finest climate upon the earth.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. What were the boundaries of the United States by the Treaty of 1783 with Great Britain?
2. What have been the additions to the territory of the United States?
3. Explain the phrase "the empire of the United States."
4. How were the land-claims of the colonies settled?
5. What is our national policy as to Territories?
6. What States have been carved out of old States?
7. Discuss briefly the admission of each of the States.
8. What is Mason and Dixon's line?
9. What Territories still remain?
10. Discuss the present population of our country.
11. Discuss the subject of immigration.
12. Where is the present center of population?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

The Histories of the States: see *American Commonwealth Series*, especially Spring's *Kansas*, Royce's *California*, Carr's *Missouri*, King's *Ohio*, Garrison's *Texas*.

Messages and Papers of the Presidents: the admission of the States.
Sparks's *Expansion of the American People.*
Hosmer's *Short History of the Mississippi Valley.*
Mowry's *Territorial Growth of the United States.*
See Appendix for List of States, with Dates of Admission; also for Immigration Statistics and Areas of Additions to American Population.
Newell's *Irrigation.*
Consult also the standard encyclopedias upon the various States, including Harper's *Encyclopedia of United States History.*

ADDITIONAL TOPICS.

1. The Influence of Steamboats upon Inter-State Migration.
2. The Influence of Railroads and their Land Grants.
3. The Influence of the Transatlantic Lines.
4. The Effect of the Homestead and Pre-emption Laws.

MAP EXERCISES.

1. Draw on the blackboard an outline map of the States. Name them.
2. Place upon it the dates of admission of States into the Union.
3. Set also upon such a map the latest population statistics.
4. Draw lines with arrowheads to indicate movements of population.
5. Locate the great cities.
6. Locate the Scandinavian regions, the German, etc., etc.

CHAPTER IV.

FROM REVOLUTION TO CONSTITUTION.

§ 1. England Recognized the Freedom of Her Colonies.

After Yorktown most Americans and most Englishmen understood that a new nation had come into being in the New World. The Treaty of Paris in 1783, recognized an already existing fact: the people in this country were ready to rule themselves, and the peoples of Europe were ready to acknowledge their place among the nations of the world. In this treaty England agreed to recognize New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia as free sovereign and independent States: to surrender to them all the lands from the Atlantic to the Mississippi River, and from Lake Superior to Florida; and to permit the American people to fish off the Great Banks of Newfoundland. These thirteen United States agreed on their part to enact no laws making the recovery of debts due English citizens from Americans difficult, to restore the estates confiscated because owned by Englishmen, and to cease to persecute the Loyalists. Both parties to the treaty agreed to the free navigation of the Mississippi River, and to surrender all prisoners of war.

§ 2. The Confederation of the States was a Failure.

The War of the Revolution was begun by the Congress that was created by the actions of various Committees of Correspondence at work in the different colonies. In 1781, Articles of Confederation were agreed upon by the thirteen

colonies in revolt, which gave the Congress of the States larger authority in times both of war and of peace. Each State had one vote in Congress.

The central government had no power to collect taxes or duties. It could not enforce its laws upon the different citizens directly, but must reach them, if at all, indirectly by the consent and effort of their particular States. It could not make the States themselves carry out the treaty agreements made in their behalf with other nations. It could only ask the States for money contributions, and could not enforce them. It did not command the respect of European nations, for it could not pay interest on their loans during the War of Independence.

Congress was not a governing body but a conference. Domestic war threatened to appear, for the different States made laws against each other. They taxed and even forbade interstate trade. The various States at first could not agree as to their conflicting claims to the Western lands, then scarcely occupied. Some of the States having no claims to Western lands refused to accept the Articles of Confederation until these lands were given to Congress. The States with lands finally surrendered all their claims.

In 1786, a convention met at Annapolis to consider the troubles of this friendly "league" that was so inefficient and consequently so dangerous to the life of the new nation. Victory in the War of Independence had made us a nation without a ruler, whether hereditary monarch or elective president. No one had any clear idea how to establish a strong central government and yet leave all citizens as free as in the time of the colonies. Nowhere in the world was there a republic to serve as a model.

§ 3. The Dying Congress of the Confederation Passed the Northwest Ordinance.

The Annapolis Convention of five States, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware and Virginia, twelve delegates in all, of whom Madison and Hamilton were the leaders, decided to ask Congress to call a convention of all the States. This met in 1787. In that same year, the Congress of the old Confederation passed the great Northwest Ordinance for the government of the lands surrendered to the whole nation by the various States. This Ordinance in the quality of its legal provisions is one of the best models of legislation in all history. It provided for the making of five new States out of the great Northwest as soon as population warranted, for freedom of religion for each and all citizens, for trial by jury, and for the maintenance of free schools; and, most important of all, it forbade slavery within the Territory. Such was the Ordinance that laid the foundations for the future great States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin. A year later the Ohio Company established the town of Marietta, named in honor of Marie Antoinette, queen of France.

§ 4. The People Suffered Great Commercial Distress.

During the War of Independence, the poverty of many of the American people was extreme. Specie money had ceased to circulate except within or near the lines of English armies. Wherever battles raged, agriculture was seriously affected. Fields were not plowed. Often when the fields were plowed, the harvests were not reaped. Manufacture scarcely existed. Commerce on the seas was greatly hindered. Hundreds of thousands of Loyalists were reduced to pauperism. Many of them fled to Canada,

to the West Indies, and to England. Old colonial conditions of business and social intercourse were utterly revolutionized. Notwithstanding these difficulties the population of the rebellious colonies grew by a million souls, from 1770 to 1783. It was a hopeful period. Many emigrants came from the Old World.

But after the war was over, a period of frightful depression set in. Creditors began to force their debtors to pay, and refused to take the paper money of the new States. When they could not get specie, they took property instead. Thousands of farmers were made homeless, and the jails were filled with poor debtors. There were riots and jail-breakings. In Massachusetts Daniel Shays organized a great insurrection for the benefit of the poor. With difficulty this insurrection was defeated by the State government. Everywhere the people were restlessly looking for a better National government. Many families took occasion to move from the settled East to the unsettled West, to the Mohawk valley and beyond to the lands of Daniel Boone's adventures in Tennessee and Kentucky, and of George Rogers Clark's marches in the territory that he had won for the new nation during the years of the great struggle.

§ 5. Meanwhile the Leaders were Planning for Better Times.

In 1787, the Convention recommended by the gathering at Annapolis, met at Philadelphia to discuss a new basis of agreement between the "free, sovereign and independent States." Washington had always desired the establishment of a sovereign central government. Franklin's experience in international diplomacy had convinced him that no league could last. Hamilton, of New York, one of

Washington's personal friends, took a leading part in the Convention. Like so many other good Americans of that critical time, he was not native-born, but had chosen America as his home. Though even then only a very young man, Hamilton had designed many excellent plans for stronger government. Thomas Jefferson, the political philosopher, was ready for the change. So also were Monroe and Madison of Virginia, Robert Morris and Gouverneur Morris of Philadelphia, both scholars and financiers, and Rufus King of Massachusetts, all leaders of public opinion. Hamilton in particular, with the assistance of James Madison of Virginia and John Jay of New York, had begun, in a publication called "The Federalist," a series of articles earnestly advocating a stronger national government. The Convention that met in Philadelphia had to discuss the great question as to what a stronger and better government would be, and what laws would be required for its establishment and continuance.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. What was England's agreement by the Treaty of Paris?
2. Name the "Original States."
3. What did the Confederation promise?
4. What was the nature of the Confederation? How many votes had each State in the Congress?
5. In what respects was the Confederation a failure? What were the causes of its failure?
6. How was the question of the "western lands" settled?
7. In what political condition had the War of Independence left the nation?
8. Discuss the Northwest Ordinance of 1787.
9. What States were formed out of the Northwest Territory?
10. Discuss the effects of the Revolutionary War upon business and agriculture.

11. What insurrection was raised in Massachusetts ?

12. What relation was there between commercial distress and western migration ?

13. What was the purpose of the Annapolis Convention ? What was its result ?

14. Who were the leaders of the Constitutional Convention ?

15. What was the purpose of the publication called "The Federalist" ?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Contemporaries:* Vol. III., pp. 14–79. American Life: — trade, fashions, slavery, etc., pp. 80–201. Politics: — town-meetings, etc., pp. 102–119. The West: — founding of Marietta, etc., pp. 120–160. The Confederation, pp. 161–197. Commercial Affairs: — Shays' Rebellion, etc., etc.

Hart's *Source Book*, pp. 161-172. Northwest Ordinance, American Ideals.

Hart's *Formation of the Union*, Chapters V. and VI. Confederation and Constitution.

Walker's *Making of the Nation* (1783–1817), Chap. I.

Winsor's *Narrative and Critical History:* Vol. VII., Chap. III.

Schouler's *History of the United States:* Vol. I., pp. 1–30.

Bancroft's *History of the United States:* Vol. VI. (last edition), pp. 5–194.

Fiske's *Critical Period of American History*, pp. 1–186.

Roosevelt's *Winning of the West:* Vol. III.

Interesting material may be found in the *Lives* of the men whose names appear in § 5.

Bryce's *American Commonwealth*, Chaps. I.–IV.

The Articles of Confederation and *The Northwest Ordinance* may be found in Harper's *Encyclopedia of U.S. History;* Larned's *History for Ready Reference;* Macdonald's *Select Documents United States History.*

Constitution of the United States: — See Appendix.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1774. First Continental Congress meets.

1775–1783. War of Independence.

1777. The Articles of Confederation are adopted.

1786. Five States hold a Convention at Annapolis.

1787. The Constitutional Convention meets.

1789. George Washington is inaugurated first President.

CHAPTER V.

MAKING THE FUNDAMENTAL LAW.

§ 1. The Men of the Constitutional Convention were the Nation's Picked Leaders.

To the Convention at Philadelphia every State except Rhode Island sent delegates. George Washington of Virginia, who had worked diligently to persuade the people to hold the Convention, punctual as ever, was in the first party to arrive, and was unanimously chosen President. After him the greatest figure in the Convention was Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania. The influence of these two men, who said but little, was stronger than that of any others. Yet it is reported of Franklin that, being very old and feeble, he frequently fell asleep during the discussions!

Virginia sent Edmund Randolph, who added more fire to the discussions than any one else, and with George Mason, also of Virginia, and Elbridge Gerry of Massachusetts, declined to sign the Constitution as adopted. Massachusetts and Virginia, the two leaders in the War of Independence, alone sent any delegates who declined to accept the results of the Convention. Gouverneur Morris, more than any other man, wrote the final draft of the great document.

The other men perhaps most deserving especial mention were James Madison of Virginia, a quiet, scholarly young man, with a future then before him; James Wilson of Pennsylvania, who knew the laws and the history of the laws of Europe; Roger Sherman of Connecticut, a politician of great experience; Oliver Ellsworth of the same State, as great a lawyer as Wilson; John Dickinson of Pennsylvania, a man of singular acuteness of mind and

sharpness in speech, but with more friends than enemies; Charles Pinckney of South Carolina, a young and brilliant man; John Rutledge of the same State, not a native but an Englishman, already old in experience, and wise; and Rufus King of Massachusetts, an active young man with great gifts in debate. Such were the men, scholarly, experienced, keen, who drafted the great Constitution of the United States in that four months' battle of ideas.

Their service was scarcely less important to this nation than that of the soldiers in the campaigns of the Revolution: many of them indeed had served honorably in the Continental Army, and had proven their patriotism under fire. As models they had only the old colonial governments and the ancient so-called republics of Greece and Rome. By long and anxious discussion they succeeded in forming a new model of government, our republic, whose success far exceeds their greatest hopes.

§ 2. The Constitution is a System of Checks and Balances.

There were several great issues to be fought out in the Convention. Some of the "sovereign States" were very large, and at least two others were very small. In the Congress of the Confederation and in this Constitutional Convention, each State had one vote. After long debate, it was agreed that in the new central government, there should be two Houses — a Senate and a House of Representatives. The States, large and small, were each to have two senators, but as many representatives as were due them according to their population. Some of the States regarded slavery as desirable: others regarded it as undesirable. After much debate, often sharp and unpleasant, it was agreed that the

slaves should be counted in population, five slaves counting as three free men. It was also agreed that the slave-trade could not be prohibited by Congress until 1808, then twenty years distant. George Mason of Virginia was especially bitter against this trade and against slavery itself.

There was also much discussion regarding the mode of electing the Chief Magistrate: the present cumbrous plan of an electoral college was finally accepted. As a whole, our fundamental law is a wonderful system of divisions and departments, of checks and balances, by which the people rule through more or less expert representatives.

The Constitution created a rather stronger central government than the Convention intended, a result due largely to the sage Franklin, the scholarly Madison, and the silent but dominant Washington.

§ 3. The Government is Divided into Legislative, Executive, and Judiciary Departments with the Judiciary Supreme.

The Constitution of the United States is a very complex body of fundamental laws such as are admirably suited to the control of a great people with diverse interests. It divides the government of the federal nation into three departments: the Legislative, consisting of the two Houses of Congress, with the President exercising a veto power; the Executive, consisting of the President with his Cabinet, whose members are the heads of the departments, to carry out the laws; and the Judicial, consisting of the Supreme Court and the inferior Federal courts, to interpret the laws. This division of the Government into departments is peculiar to the American federal government; but quite as peculiar is the American plan by which the

Supreme Court decides whether the laws of Congress are or are not in accord with the Constitution of the United States, and by which its decision to the effect that an act of Congress is unconstitutional makes it null and void. In the United States the highest authority is not in the Senate, is not in the President, but is in the Justices of the Supreme Court. Their decision on all laws is final.

§ 4. The Constitution was Ratified and Amended.

As soon as the final draft of the Constitution was agreed upon by a majority of the deputies in the Convention, a discussion arose as to how it should be signed. Finally it was agreed that the deputies should not sign the instrument itself, but should sign an attestation that the Constitution had been agreed upon by a majority of the States. It was necessary then, by a provision of the Constitution itself, to submit it to the various States for ratification.

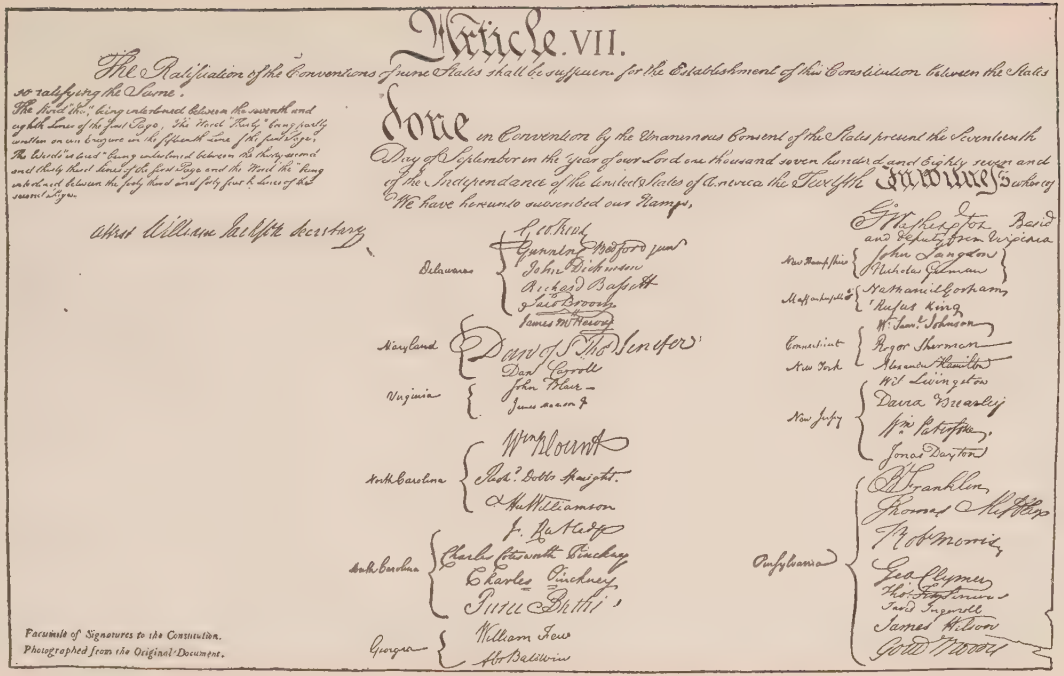
In many States there was strong opposition to the Constitution. Some feared that the federal government would become too powerful, and might become tyrannical. Others hesitated to accept the Constitution because it contained no guarantee of personal rights such as was afterwards included in the first ten amendments. The first State to accept the Constitution was Delaware, in December. The Convention had adjourned in September. Then followed Pennsylvania, won over by the arguments of Franklin and Wilson. Like Delaware, New Jersey and Georgia agreed unanimously. Connecticut followed with slight opposition. In Massachusetts there was a bitter struggle. John Hancock, leader of the opposition, finally agreed, provided certain amendments be added. These amendments

were of extreme importance in protecting individual rights and liberties. They were "after thoughts," it is true, but without them the Constitution would have neglected the welfare of private citizens. A promise was given, and by a very small majority the Constitution was accepted.

Maryland followed cheerfully. South Carolina followed, but asked for amendments similar to those of Massachusetts. Thus eight States had been secured. The Constitution required nine before it could go into effect. It was now June, 1788, and the opposition to the Constitution had become organized. Finally in Virginia Washington, Madison, Randolph, and Marshall won against Patrick Henry and several other brilliant leaders. The Massachusetts vote had been 187 to 168; the Virginia vote was 186 to 167. Meantime, by a few days, New Hampshire had the distinction of becoming the ninth and decisive State to accept the Constitution.

By far the most bitter struggle was in New York. Hamilton finally won by a vote of 30 to 27 in July. North Carolina soon followed; and Rhode Island, which, fearing that a strong central government would deprive her of the customs revenue of Newport, then the greatest trading-port in America, and fearing also that the government would be not aristocratic but democratic, had sent no delegates to the Convention, did not vote to ratify until June, 1790. Meantime, Congress had assembled, and agreed to begin to carry on a national government under the Constitution, March, 1789.

The Massachusetts amendments, ten in number, were adopted without opposition in 1791. They are similar in nature to the English Declaration and Bill of Rights, among the most important documents in the "English Constitution."



Article. VII.

The Ratification of the Conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the Establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the Same.

The word "the" being interlined between the seventh and eighth Lines of the first Page, The word "Thirty" being written on an Erasure in the fifteenth Line of the first Page, The Word "and" being interlined between the thirty second and thirty third Lines of the first Page and the Word "the" being interlined between the forty third and forty fourth Lines of the second Page.

Done in Convention by the Unanimous Consent of the States present the Seventeenth Day of September in the Year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and Eighty seven and of the Independence of the United States of America the Twelfth. In Witness whereof We have hereunto subscribed our Names,

Go: Washington Presidt and Deputy from Virginia

Attest William Jackson Secretary

Delaware: Geo: Read, Gunning Bedford jun, John Dickinson, Richard Bassett, Jaco: Broom

Maryland: James M'Henry, Dan of St Thos Jenifer, Danl Carroll

Virginia: John Blair, James Madison Jr.

North Carolina: Wm Blount, Richd Dobbs Spaight, Hu Williamson

South Carolina: J. Rutledge, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, Charles Pinckney, Pierce Butler

Georgia: William Few, Abr Baldwin

New Hampshire: John Langdon, Nicholas Gilman

Massachusetts: Nathaniel Gorham, Rufus King

Connecticut: Wm Saml Johnson, Roger Sherman

New York: Alexander Hamilton

New Jersey: Wil: Livingston, David Brearley, Wm Paterson, Jona: Dayton

Pensylvania: B Franklin, Thomas Mifflin, Robt Morris, Geo. Clymer, Thos FitzSimons, Jared Ingersoll, James Wilson, Gouv Morris

Facsimile of Signatures to the Constitution. Photographed from the Original Document.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. Who was President of the Constitutional Convention ?
2. Who was the greatest figure in the Convention ?
3. Name other prominent men.
4. Describe and explain the Federal Government as desired by the Convention.
5. Explain what is meant by the statement that "The United States is the only country in the world in which the Judiciary is supreme."
6. What were the first States to ratify the Convention ?
7. How was the opposition of Massachusetts and other States overcome ?
8. Discuss the Amendments.

QUESTIONS UPON THE CONSTITUTION.

(See Appendix.)

1. Are the States or the People credited with ordaining the Constitution ? For what reasons was the Constitution established ?
2. What is the name of the national legislature ? Of what is it composed ?
3. In which House do revenue bills originate ? Which House represents the States ? Which the People ?
4. What are the powers of the Congress ?
5. What are the provisions as to interstate trade ?
6. What are the powers denied to the States ?
7. What is the title of the nation's chief executive ?
8. How is he elected ?
9. What are the powers of the chief executive ?
10. Describe the organization of the Federal Courts.
11. What are the provisions for making each State equal with every other ?
12. Discuss slavery and the slave-trade in the Constitution.
13. What is the provision for insuring States against invasion and domestic violence ?
14. Discuss freedom of religion, of speech, of the press, and of assembly, in the first amendment.
15. Discuss the right of privacy in one's own home as seen in the fourth amendment.
16. Discuss the rights of a person accused of crime, as in the fifth and sixth amendments, and in Article I., § 9.
17. What is the constitutional law as to trial by jury ?

18. Discuss the reserved powers of the States. (Amendment Article X. is considered the most important single item of the Constitution.)

NOTE. The Constitution should be read a half page at a time, and discussed in the light of history. Many of its truths have been won at the cost of wars and martyrdoms. It is a compendium of the world's political wisdom reduced to principles of practical service. It cannot be fully appreciated by many boys and girls, but it can be understood; and carried in memory will years later bear abundant fruit. Notice that for the great system of parties and nominating conventions the Constitution makes no provision. When it was drawn, no one dreamed that the electors of the President would be pledged to certain candidates before their election. It is one of the useless yet fascinating questions of history whether the Constitution could have been so framed that the War of Secession would never have taken place. We must remember that in 1787 nearly every one expected slavery to die out.

SUGGESTED READINGS.

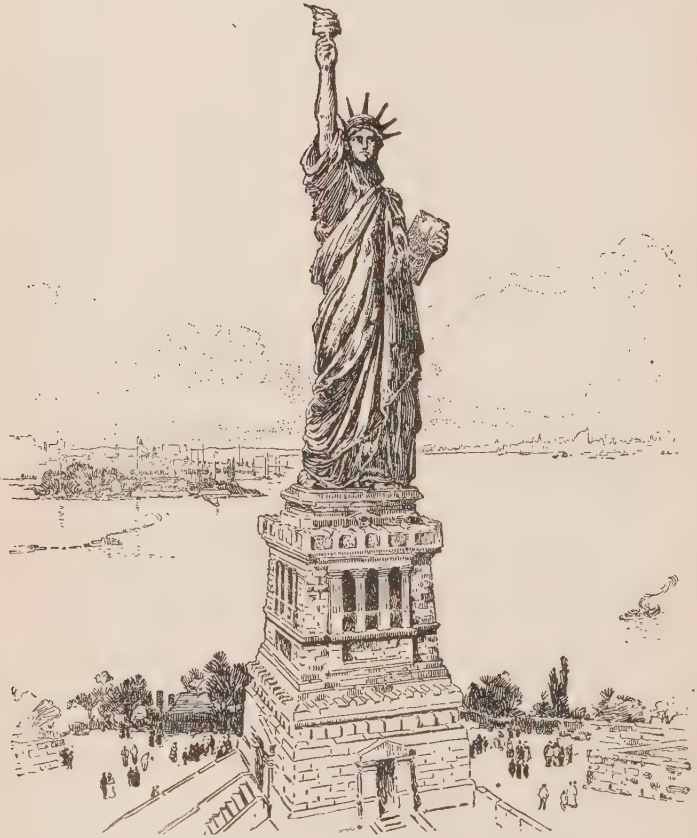
See References, Chap. IV., p. 249.
Meigs's *Growth of Constitution.*
Consult the *Lives* of the various persons named in the §§ 1 and 4.
Consult also their biographies in the standard encyclopedias.
Hart's *Contemporaries:* Vol. III., pp. 198–254.
Caldwell's *American History* (Source Extracts), pp. 72–145.
Thorpe's *History of the American People*, pp. 254–289.
Goldwin Smith's *Political History of the United States*, pp. 121–129.
Fiske's *Civil Government.*
Strong and Stanford's *Government in State and Nation.*

ADDITIONAL TOPICS.

1. The Dispute between the Large and the Small States.
2. The Slavery Issue in the Constitutional Convention.

GREAT DATES.

1492. Columbus discovers America.
1607. Virginia is settled.
1682. Pennsylvania is settled.
1733. Georgia is settled.
1775. The War of Independence begins.
1787. The Constitutional Convention meets.



The Statue of Liberty, by the French Sculptor, Bartholdi.
Presented by the People of France to America.
Erected in 1886 upon Bedloe's Island in New York Harbor.
Height of Statue, 151 ft. Height of Torch above Base of Pedestal, 305½ ft.

PART FOUR.

POLITICAL PROGRESS OF THE NATION.

CHAPTER I.

BEFORE THE TIME OF PARTY POLITICS.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, 1789–1797.

§ 1. The First President was Elected, and Governed Without Opposition.

GENERAL GEORGE WASHINGTON was elected the first President of the United States. No other candidate was considered for that great office. He was the representative man of the new nation, and his Administration successfully developed a period of civil peace and commercial prosperity in marked contrast with the long years of distrust and struggle that had preceded it. As an individual man the President stood for the continuance of the old order rather than for the forces which were to make the nation as great in commerce and industry as it had already proven itself to be in war and in politics. He controlled the national government as has no later President in the history of the

Martha Washington,
Born, 1732; died, 1802.
Wife of George Washington.

A SONATA,

Sung by a Number of young Girls, dreſſed in white and decked with Wreaths and Chaplets of Flowers, holding Baſkets of Flowers in their Hands, as General Waſhington paſſed under the Triumphal Arch raiſed on the Bridge at Trenton, April 21, 1789.

WELCOME, mighty Chief! once more,
Welcome to this grateful Shore.
Now no mercenary Foe
Aims again the fatal Blow—
Aims at thee the fatal Blow.

Virgins fair, and Matrons grave,
Thoſe thy conquering Arms did ſave,
Build for thee triumphal Bowers.
Strew, ye Fair, his Way with Flowers—*
Strew your Hero's Way with Flowers.

* As they ſung theſe Lines they ſtrewed the Flowers before the General who halted until the Sonata was finiſhed.

The General being preſented with a Copy of the Sonata, was pleaſed to addreſs the following Card to the Ladies.

To the LADIES of Trenton, who were aſſembled on the twenty-firſt Day of April 1789, at the Triumphal Arch erected by them on the Bridge, which extends acroſs the Aſſanpinck Creek.

GENERAL WASHINGTON cannot leave this Place without expreſſing his Acknowledgments to the Matrons and Young Ladies, who received him in ſo novel and grateful a Manner at the Triumphal Arch in Trenton, for the exquiſite Senſations he experienced in that affecting Moment.—The aſtoniſhing Contraſt between his former and actual Situation at the ſame Spot—the elegant Taſte with which it was adorned for the preſent Occaſion—and the innocent Appearance of the *White-Robed* CHOIR who met him with the gratulatory Song—have made ſuch an Impreſſion on his Remembrance, as, he aſſures them, will never be effaced.

Trenton, April 21, 1789.

nation, for as a successful general of the Revolutionary War, and political organizer throughout the critical period of Constitution-making, he was the idol of the people.

§ 2. Two Leaders Appeared, Alexander Hamilton and Thomas Jefferson.

There were no political parties in the United States in 1789, nor did any one ever dream how important a place political partisanship was to take later in the working out in America of the political ideal of representative democracy. There were, however, several factions. Of these the chief were the same two that were so active in the critical period. One faction desired to build up a strong government and a great nation in the New World. This was the party of the commercial men of the time, and was strong in the cities and towns, of which the largest had scarcely a hundred thousand people. The other faction sought to protect the State governments as the means of protecting the individual citizen in his rights, privileges, and liberties. These two opposing ideas have been the bases of the two great political parties ever since. This faction was especially strong in the country districts. Both factions were represented in Washington's Cabinet, the first by Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, and the second by Thomas Jefferson, Secretary of State.

Alexander Hamilton did not believe in altogether trusting the people to govern themselves. Indeed, most of the highly educated men of the time distrusted the common people, and believed that as they did not often seem to prosper in their personal affairs, so their collective judgment on affairs of government must be poor. In this administration Hamilton was closer to the President than

was any other man, and to him Washington's signal success as the first President was largely due.

§ 3. Washington Organized Five Executive Departments.

The first necessity of the Administration was to raise funds. This the President and Congress did by levying a tariff duty upon imports. It was a heavy tariff, — quite as heavy as that against which the people had fought in the War of Independence. Besides, the American commerce at sea was greatly injured by England's prohibition of trade with the West Indies. But the merchants and the people accepted the new tariff resolutely. Five departments were

New York City Hall, Wall St., Head of Broad St. Built in 1700. Here met: The Provincial Assembly; The Supreme Court; The City Council. Here George Washington was inaugurated first President, 1789.

established, and a Cabinet was formed to advise the President, which included heads of the departments of State, Treasury, War, and Justice. The Postmaster-General was not made a member of the Cabinet. Congress and the Administration together undertook the task of organizing a government in the Executive and Judicial Departments in accordance with the provisions of the new Constitution.

§ 4. Congress Decided to Pay the War Debts in Full, and to Locate the Capital in the Southern States.

By far the most important undertakings of the Administration were the settlement of the national debt and the securing of an adequate revenue. The United States, as the political successor of the Confederation of independent States, owed about $54,000,000, of which $11,000,000 was owed in Europe, chiefly in France. The rest was owed to American citizens who had bought bonds issued by the Confederation. This was a vast sum to a nation of 4,000,000 people, whose business had not yet revived from the depression due to the long war, and to the longer after-period of distrust and misery. Most of the citizens were agreed that the foreign debt should be paid in full, but most also were opposed to paying the domestic debt in full, since the bonds of the Confederation had cost their holders very much less than their par value. The Administration wished to refund this debt at par on the ground that the nation must begin honestly so as to have good credit. Both the foreign and the domestic debts of the Nation were finally paid in full.

The different States of the United States also owed great sums of money, largely spent in prosecuting the War of Independence. The Administration, led by Hamilton, was in favor of the nation's paying the debts of the States. There was opposition to this on the additional ground that the Northern States were much more heavily in debt than the Southern. Some of the States owed money to the United States. While this controversy was at its height, another arose, also between the North and South, as to the location of the national Capital. Both controversies were

settled by a method that has since come to be called "log rolling." Some Northern members of Congress voted to place the Capital upon the Potomac River in the South in return for Southern votes to direct the United States to assume certain debts of the separate States irrespective of their debts to the United States.

§ 5. The Slave Question was Discussed.

Early in Washington's Administration two questions arose that were not to be settled finally until seventy years had passed. The first of these was whether the National Government was to be supreme over the State Governments, or subordinate to them. The second related to the rights of slave-traders and of slave-holders. It came up in several forms: one was a proposal to levy a duty upon all Negroes imported, another was to give the slaves certain rights as citizens, and another was to permit any one who claimed a slave wherever found to take possession of him. On each of these issues the slave-holders were successful. Early in the Administration, Vermont, a free State, and Kentucky, a slave State, were admitted into the Union. Vermont had seceded from New York during the War of Independence.

§ 6. The Supporters of Jefferson Criticised the Followers of Hamilton for Benefiting Themselves Through the Financial Policy of the Government.

Two more of Hamilton's measures contributed to the strength of government, — the levying of an internal revenue tax on whisky, and the establishment of a national bank.

While Hamilton, the Federalist, was strong in the Administration, Jefferson, the Republican, was growing in strength among the people. He and his followers charged

the leaders of the Federalists with making money out of the Government, by the rise in value of the bonds that represented the National debt; and without warrant cast slurs upon even Washington himself, who was at the personal disadvantage of being known as one of the richest men in the United States.

§ 7. Washington Issued a Proclamation of Neutrality.

In 1793, the republic of France, which as a monarchy had been so helpful to the United States during the Revolutionary War, declared war upon England. There existed

President Washington's Coach.

between the United States and France a treaty of alliance which pledged each nation to defend the territorial possessions of the other. Jefferson believed that the treaty was still in force, though the form of government in France

had changed. Hamilton took the contrary view. Following his advice, Washington, who was very anxious to keep the United States free from international complications, issued a proclamation of neutrality, warning American citizens not to take sides with either party. The position of the Administration was complicated by the presence in the United States of an agent of France known as "Citizen Genet," who was received with great popular applause. Fortunately for the Administration, new rulers came into control in France who were unfriendly to Genet, and he was recalled.

John Jay Born, 1745; died, 1829. Diplomat; Chief Justice U.S. Supreme Court; Governor, New York.

At this critical time Washington was again unanimously elected President, a convincing evidence of the popular appreciation, not only of his great services in the past, but of his admirable judgment in the management of national affairs.

§ 8. Treaties were Made with England and Spain.

Shortly after Washington's re-election, there arose special difficulties with England beside those caused by the continuing war between England and France. The citizens of the new nation owed money to English citizens, which they did not pay; and England in retaliation refused to surrender any military posts in the Northwest, and also refused to pay for slaves taken away by the army and navy at the time of the evacuation of Charleston and New York.

Further, England put in force the "International Rule of War of 1756," by which the citizens of a neutral country could not trade with the citizens of a country at war with another country except at their own peril. Lastly, England insisted on her right to examine American trading vessels, and remove from them any British citizens. The general sentiment of the nation at this period was for war.

To avoid such a catastrophe, Washington sent John Jay to England to negotiate a new treaty. Its terms were by no means satisfactory to the American public. Only with great difficulty did the Administration secure the ratification of this treaty, which was decidedly more favorable to England than to the United States. It postponed to the future the settlement of the most important questions, but provided that American vessels above seventy tons' burden should not trade in the West Indies, and that the United States should not export molasses, sugar, cocoa, coffee, and cotton to any part of the world. Viewed in the light of later history, the good point of Jay's treaty was that it postponed the second war with Great Britain for twenty years. Equal statesmanship in 1812 might have postponed it for ever.

Sarah Livingston, wife of John Jay. Mother of a famous line.

The new nation had difficulty as to its international relations, not only with France and England, but also with Spain, which had deprived us of the right of a landing-place within Spanish territory upon the Mississippi River. The

landing-place was needed for the purpose of transferring merchandise from river-going craft to sea-going vessels. A favorable treaty was negotiated, but it was several years before the Spanish officers permitted the establishment of such a post. Just before the close of Washington's second term, new troubles arose with France over the unwarranted capture of vessels by French citizens.

§ 9. The Indians in the Northwest Territory Resented the Progress of White Settlements.

A considerable part of Washington's term was taken up with Indian wars. The Ordinance of 1787 turned over to white settlement the Northwest territory, almost without consulting the Indians in 1790. The Miamis of Ohio arose, and overwhelmed the army sent against them. Anthony Wayne, of Revolutionary fame, distinguished himself in these campaigns. In Washington's messages to Congress much space was devoted to the Indian troubles, which only a century ago were constant and serious.

§ 10. Washington Issued a "Farewell Address."

Washington, who had now reached the age of sixty-five, was not an old man so much in years as in experience and in the wear and tear of life. He refused a third term, and retired in 1797, issuing a "farewell address" that is one of the most valuable documents of our public history.

Washington throughout his career carried on an immense correspondence. His British enemies said of him that he wrote letters twenty-four hours in the day. What fine letters they were! And in what beautiful penmanship! No other man of his age and generation knew so well the sentiments of so many citizens in various parts of the United States

as did he who was characterized by Madison, as "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen."

George Washington in the Presidency proved himself as great as in the command of armies. As a general, he was greater in organization and in the strategy of campaigns than in the tactics of battle. He displayed vast talents in the management of affairs, in peace and in war. He was as good a business man in private as in public affairs. Of great stature of body, and singular dignity and poise of manner, his presence attracted the attention, and his speech and conduct won the confidence, of men of all classes and conditions. They recognized in his high bearing that moral bravery which he displayed alike on battlefields and in councils of state.

Whatever may be true of the relative greatness of other Americans compared with other heroes of history, of Washington and Lincoln it is true that they stand without superiors in their service to humanity.

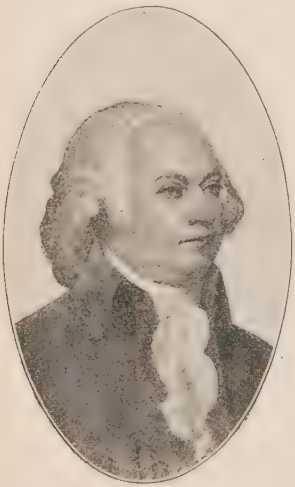
John Adams, 1797–1801.

§ 11. Two Parties were Begun.

John Adams was not the leader of the Federalist or National Party, which had grown out of the discussions and factions of Washington's Administration, but he was the only person whom the Federalists could elect, since Hamilton and Jay, the real leaders, were personally very unpopular among the people. Jefferson, of the opposing Anti-Federalist or States' Rights party, received only three votes less than Adams in a total count of 139 votes in the Electoral College. Consequently Adams, unlike Washington, began his Administration with a seriously divided people.

§ 12. Trouble with France Resulted in Trouble at Home.

Owing to diplomatic troubles between France and the United States, it was necessary to appoint a special commission to that country. Many new vessels were added to the navy as a means of protecting national honor abroad. At home the Alien and Sedition Acts of 1798 were passed by Congress. These made it much more difficult for foreign-born men to be naturalized as American citizens, and authorized the President to exclude and exile aliens according to his judgment. The Sedition Act was scarcely constitutional, since it was directed against free speech, as we understand it. These Acts were followed by the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions, which announced the great doctrine of State sovereignty and the right of secession. They were the product of the philosophy of Thomas Jefferson, who himself wrote a considerable part of them.



John Adams.
Born, 1735; died, 1826.
President; Diplomat.
Adams and Jefferson both died on July 4, 1826.

The Alien and Sedition Acts were extremely unpopular, partly because they were enforced against individuals of the States' Rights party, which was growing in power and in number. In 1800 a treaty with France effected a temporary peace settlement, and by removing the international causes of these Acts led to domestic tranquillity.

§ 13. Adams was a Failure as a Politician.

During his Administration Adams had successfully prevented our nation from engaging in war with France. Nevertheless, he had been unable personally to adjust himself to the new discordant forces at work in the nation. He had made enemies among the Federalists themselves by his policy. Hamilton especially disliked him and opposed his re-election. Adams was a representative of the past, and of its great achievements in war and in politics, rather than of the future, whose economic developments and territorial expansion were so soon to astonish the whole world.

Abigail Smith,
Wife of John Adams.
Mother of a famous line.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. Who was the first President of the United States? Was there opposition to his election? Give reasons for answer.
2. What two factions were developed in the government? Who were their leaders?
3. At this time what did most educated men think of the ability of the common people to rule themselves?
4. How many executive departments of government were there? Name them.
5. What was done to settle the National debt?
6. What was done with regard to the debts of the separate States?
7. How was the question of a National Capital settled?
8. What Negro-slave questions arose in Congress?
9. Discuss the Republican criticisms of Hamilton's policy.
10. With what foreign nation did we narrowly escape war?
11. Discuss our international difficulties with England. What treaty was made?

12. What was the cause of our dispute with Spain?

13. Were there any difficulties with the Indians?

14. What opinion did Madison express regarding Washington? Give reasons for approving it.

15. Who was the second President of our nation? Was he unanimously elected?

16. What were the "Alien and Sedition Acts"? Why were they passed?

17. What were the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions?

18. Was Adams a successful President?

19. From what States did Washington and Adams come?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Contemporaries:* Vol. III., pp. 255–343: Public Credit, Congress, Tariff, The National Capital, The National Bank, Office-seeking Parties, Hamilton and Jefferson, Politics, The French Revolution, Citizen Genet, Jay's Treaty, Adams, XYZ Correspondence.

Hart's *Source Book*, pp. 181–183: Washington, pp. 188–190. Troubles of the Sea-trade, pp. 191–194, XYZ Correspondence.

Hart's *Source Readers:* No. 3, John Hancock; Washington at Mount Vernon, 1788; etc.

Hart's *Formation of the Union:* Chapters VII.-VIII.

McMaster's *History of the People of the United States:* Vol. I., pp. 525–604; Vol. II., 89–557.

Schouler's *History of the United States:* Vol. I., pp. 74–501.

Consult lives of *Alexander Hamilton* by Morse, by Lodge, and by Sumner; also of *John Adams* by Morse; of *James Madison* by Hunt and by Morse; of *Thomas Jefferson* by Morse; of *John Jay* by Pellew; and of *Washington* by Wilson, by Sparks, and by Lodge.

Gibbs's *Administration of Washington and Adams.*

Abigail Adams's *Letters.*

Old South Leaflets: Nos. 4 (Washington's Farewell Address), 10, 12, 15, 65, 76, 99, 103.

Wendell's *Literary History of America:* Chap. VIII.

Learned's *History for Ready Reference*; and the standard encyclopedias.

NOTE A. The period, 1789–1801, is often called the Federalist Period, because during it the Federalists who believed and proclaimed their belief in a strong central government were in power. In this period, which was very picturesque in many respects, such American women as Martha Washington, the first "lady of the land," Abigail Adams, the brilliant

wife of the aristocratic President, and Sarah Jay, of an old New York family, the Livingstons, exercised an influence in social affairs, and indeed in political affairs, greater than has been possible to women in later and more democratic times.

Note B. An extremely interesting and instructive incident occurred early in Washington's Administration. The new President, who correctly believed that the new nation needed the prestige of power handsomely manifested in social affairs, made a tour of the country. In Boston, Governor John Hancock of Massachusetts raised the question of States' Rights and the Nation's superiority by inviting the President to call upon him. After considerable elegant correspondence, the Governor called upon the President. Upon the issue of this apparent trivial matter of formal social etiquette turned the question of official precedence of President and Governors, of Nation and States.

ADDITIONAL TOPICS FOR DISCUSSION OR INQUIRY.

1. The XYZ Correspondence.
2. The Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions.
3. Citizen Genet.
4. The French Revolution.
5. Comparison of Edmund Burke's Position regarding the American Revolution and his Position regarding the French Revolution.
6. The Adams Family.
7. Martha Washington.
8. Hamilton's Distrust of the Common People.
9. Impressment of Sailors.
10. Washington's "Farewell Address."
11. The Indians of the Ohio Valley.
12. The Career of "Mad Anthony Wayne."
13. Jefferson's Political Philosophy: especially his Early Views of the Wisdom of Trusting the Masses.
14. Jefferson's Influence in Separating Church and State in Virginia.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1776. Declaration of Independence.
1789. Inauguration of George Washington as first President.
1789–97. Washington's Administrations.
1797–1801. John Adams's Administration.
1800–01. Fall of the Federalists.

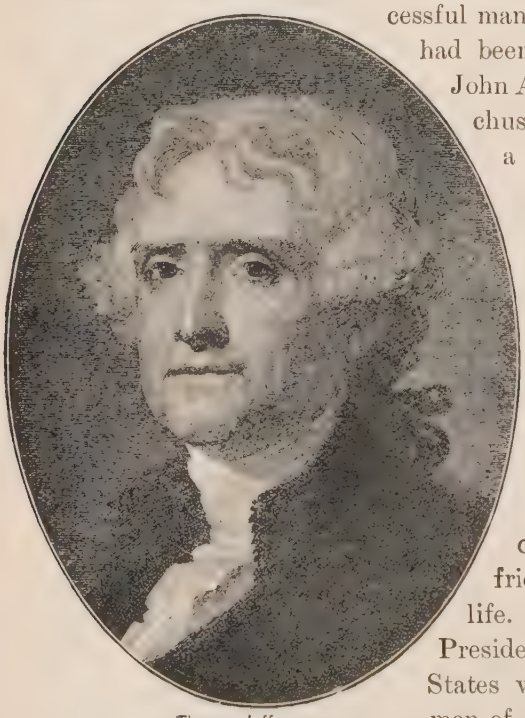
CHAPTER II.

WHEN VIRGINIA'S SCHOLARS WERE PRESIDENTS.

THOMAS JEFFERSON, 1801–1809.

§ 1. Three Successive Presidents Came from Virginia.

GEORGE WASHINGTON of Virginia was the always successful man of affairs. He had been succeeded by John Adams of Massachusetts, a scholar, a statesman, a diplomatist, but no politician. After these two Presidents came three Virginians, all scholars, all statesmen, all good politicians, and close personal friends throughout life. These first five Presidents of the United States were all famous men of the Revolution. By far the most influential of them upon all later political thought in American history, was Thomas



Thomas Jefferson.
Born, 1743; died, 1826.
President: Governor Virginia: Diplomat

Jefferson, a man of wealth and social position, a slave holder and a philosopher, whose scholarship was broad, but whose activities were practical. In his lifetime Virginia was the foremost State in the Union.

Thomas Jefferson, who on the twenty-fifth ballot in the House of Representatives defeated Burr, Adams and Pinckney by a plurality, and whose first election was carried over into Congress as directed by the Constitution, represented new times of party division in America. He had been prominent as a political philosopher as long ago as in the Revolutionary War, but his singular openness of mind had kept him alive to the progress of the nation.

§ 2. The Administration was Successful Financially.

Jefferson began by reorganizing the government offices, especially by changing the office-holders. His Administration inherited a debt of $83,000,000, which was $6,000,000 more than that of Washington's Administration. The increase was due to the extraordinary expense of conducting the Indian wars, and to diplomatic and other troubles with France. Meantime the income of the government had grown from three and a half million annually to ten and a half million, a record due largely to Hamilton's wise financial measures in earlier years. It was the large national debt that led Jefferson to his serious error of discouraging the merchant marine, by retiring from service eighteen out of twenty-five war-vessels in the interest of public economy. His Administration was extremely successful financially, however, for it reduced the national debt by half, though paying for the Louisiana Purchase, and for the naval wars against the piratical Barbary powers. His Secretary of the Treasury,

Albert Gallatin, a native of Switzerland, was as able a financier as Hamilton, also foreign-born, had been. This good beginning was exceedingly fortunate for the young nation, whose credit became well established by their successful management.

§ 3. The Purchase of Louisiana Made the Administration Popular.

In the effect upon the history of this country the purchase of the Louisiana territory, in 1803, was the most important event in our history since the Declaration of Independence. In both of these great events Thomas Jefferson played a part greater than that of any other man. Spain had held the region since 1763 until France secured it in 1800 by a promised exchange of Italian territory.

France shut the people of the Mississippi valley from access to the Gulf. This angered the entire American nation. Fortunately for us Napoleon needed money, and the thrifty Jefferson, willing against his Constitutional theories to construe his authority as President very freely, authorized our Minister R. R. Livingston, to buy the region for $15,000,000, less several millions owed by France to some of our citizens. After the purchase Jefferson's re-election became absolutely certain, and was secured almost without opposition.

§ 4. Alexander Hamilton was Killed in a Duel, and Aaron Burr Tried to Found a Western Empire.

Jefferson's second term was dramatic in the extreme. It began with the conspiracy and trial of Aaron Burr, the Vice-President of Jefferson's first term. In 1804 Burr challenged Alexander Hamilton to a duel, and killed him. This duel was the last of importance ever fought in the

North, for its result aroused the indignation of all Northern people. It also made Burr a social outcast. He decided to try to found a new nation, either Republic or Empire, somewhere west of the Appalachians. After many adventures Burr was captured, and brought to trial for treason; but he was not convicted.

Alexander Hamilton.
Born, 1757; died, 1804.
Statesman: Author (chief) of "The Federalist." The first soldier upon the British works at Yorktown.

§ 5. England's War Against Napoleon, the Master of the Continent of Europe, Involved Our Nation.

Meantime the great nations then at war, France and England, continued their attacks upon our merchant marine. "Decrees" and "Orders in Council," making it more and more difficult for vessels to engage in trade, followed in rapid succession. The ports of France were closed by British Orders, and the ports of the Empire of Great Britain in all parts of the world, and also the ports of the Continent of Europe, were closed by French Decrees.

A bitter discussion arose over the question whether the British had the right to decide that a sailor on an American ship was or was not an American citizen. The British claimed the right of search, and denied the right of the United States to naturalize foreign-born men. The United States denied the right of any foreign nation to stop an American vessel anywhere. Naturalization as American citizens had indeed become wholesale. Entire crews at times deserted from the British naval service. Affairs came

to a crisis when on June 27, 1807, the British ship *Leopard* attacked upon our own Atlantic coast without warning the American frigate *Chesapeake*, and took away three Americans, two of whom were Negroes, and one British citizen. This blood-stained international outrage led to violent discussion in the United States, and was followed by Jefferson's proclamation forbidding British war-vessels to visit American harbors. This favored the French, and pleased Jefferson's party while it greatly displeased the Federalists.

§ 6. In the Midst of the Embargo Act Troubles Jefferson's Administration Came to an End.

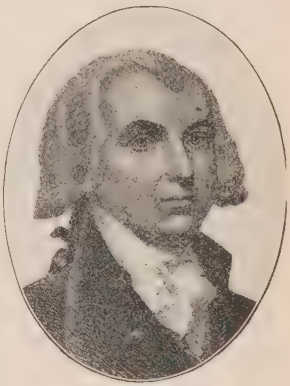
In December, 1807, the first Embargo Act was passed, forbidding American vessels to leave American ports for foreign lands. This led to serious international complications. Napoleon argued that, since American vessels could not legally sail the seas, they were liable to confiscation by France without any recourse by their owners in the courts. Commerce between America and Great Britain practically ceased. The tobacco planters of Virginia suffered together with the New England ship-owners. They called the Act "O-grab-me." In the midst of these troubles Jefferson's second term came to an end. Like Washington, he declined a third term and established an invaluable precedent.

Jefferson was a philosopher, working into politics his dreams of a wise and righteous social state, and centered upon himself the affections of many and the hatred of a few, because of his far-reaching plans and activities. He represented the new American forces that were seeking equality and personal liberty for all. He saw public affairs from the point of view of the individual citizen. He was not so much a State's-rights-man as a man's-rights-man.

James Madison, 1809–1817.

§ 7. Difficulties with England and France Continued.

James Madison of Virginia succeeded Thomas Jefferson, whose personal friend and political supporter and adviser he had been since the earliest days of the Revolution. Madison's first difficulties were with the constant international troubles. A more liberal Embargo Act was passed, which permitted American vessels to trade with other nations than France and Great Britain. Affairs between the United States and Great Britain were brought to a crisis by several causes. The Indian agitator Tecumseh, who had been defeated by General Harrison on Tippecanoe River, 1810, had joined the British; and the settlers beyond the Appalachians began to talk of a war of conquest against Canada. Impressment of seamen still continued. Further, the British ministry was offensively patronizing in its attitude toward the United States Government.



James Madison.
Born, 1751; died, 1836.
President: Author.

Dolly Payne, Wife of James Madison, who helped make his Administration popular.

§ 8. War with England Followed.

Three new men, Henry Clay, John C. Calhoun, and Daniel Webster, came into Congress, displacing there the last of the

Revolutionary leaders. Clay was for war. When this was declared in 1812, it was very unpopular in the North. The naval victories, however, caused much enthusiasm. The privateers made great fortunes, capturing twenty-five hundred British vessels. Great Britain was finally forced by European difficulties to agree to a treaty before the war was actually finished. The treaty did not even mention the important questions that were in issue between the parties, but the United States later secured everything desired.

§ 9. The War Led to the Hartford Convention.

As the Revolutionary period had brought forward great leaders, so the War of 1812 made several men prominent. Jackson's great victory at New Orleans, which occurred after the war was theoretically over, 1815, increased the power of the States' rights party, and made him a popular hero. During the war, the people of Massachusetts had been opposed to it, though they supported it with men and arms on land and with privateers on the sea, even more generously than any Southerners. This fact led to sectional bitterness, which resulted in the famous Hartford Convention, December, 1814, to January, 1815. The resolutions of the Convention asserted the doctrine of States' rights, afterward advanced only by the South. War increased the national debt from less than $45,000,000 at the end of Jefferson's Administration to $127,000,000. Thirty thousand lives had been lost, and nothing important directly gained.

§ 10. The Overthrow of Napoleon in Europe Changed for the Better Our Domestic Affairs.

The conclusion at this time of the great Napoleonic wars by the defeat and overthrow of Napoleon in 1815 at Waterloo assisted in the rapid transformation of the world's

economic conditions. It became necessary for the United States to protect its manufactures from British competition. Manufacturing had grown wonderfully, especially in the line of cotton, and the Tariff Act of 1816 was the logical outcome. Strangely enough, in view of later history, Daniel Webster opposed protection as against the true interests of New England, and Calhoun and Jefferson advocated it.

James Monroe, 1817–1825.

§ 11. The First Term of Monroe's Administration was Quiet.

The last of the Presidents of Revolutionary fame was James Monroe of Virginia, who had studied law with Jefferson, and had always been his staunch supporter. Monroe was a quiet gentleman, of rather less ability than Madison, but otherwise much like him. In the first term of his Administration, very little of importance occurred; and he was re-elected President with but one vote against him, and that vote was cast because an elector was determined that Washington should be the only man unanimously elected.

James Monroe.
Born, 1758; died, 1831.
President: Diplomat: Governor, Virginia.

§ 12. Our Northern Boundary was Fixed, and We Gained Florida in the South.

In foreign affairs, the northern boundary of our country was established by treaty from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains; and it was agreed, 1818, that Great Britain and the United States should occupy Oregon jointly for ten years.

It had become evident that Spanish Florida was a harbor of refuge to fugitive slaves and fugitive criminals together with marauding Indians. In 1819, as a result of an incursion by General Jackson into her territory the year before, Spain ceded it to the United States together with the southern parts of Alabama and Georgia, and the United States in return agreed to abandon Texas. This cession cost our government five million dollars, to be paid to American citizens in settlement of their claims against Spain.

§ 13. The Monroe Doctrine was Announced.

The event of Monroe's Administration that was destined later to be called the most important feature in the development of the United States in international affairs, was the publication of the Monroe Doctrine. After the victory of the Allied Powers over Napoleon, the kings of Europe had formed the Holy Alliance for the promotion of peace under the rule of kings, and for the restoration of all things as they were before the French Revolution. This Alliance in 1823 decided to undertake the re-conquest of the former colonies which had successfully revolted from Spain and Portugal during the Napoleonic Wars. Moreover, Russia had obtained a foothold in Alaska. American statesmen feared that Spain might regain possession of South America, Russia might gain Oregon, and perhaps the whole Pacific Coast, while France and Great Britain might increase their power and possessions here.

The President, urged by his Secretary of State, John Quincy Adams, declared: that "The American continents, by the free and independent condition which they have assumed and maintain, are henceforth not to be considered

as subjects for future colonization by any European powers;" . . . and "that we should consider any attempt on the part of European powers to extend their system of government to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies, we shall not interfere but with the governments whose independence we have acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European power, in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States."

This Doctrine had its origin in the views of George Washington, as expressed in his Neutrality Proclamation, and of Thomas Jefferson, whose saying, "entangling alliances with none," in his first inaugural, has been one of America's guiding principles. The result of its proclamation was that the plans of the Holy Alliance in the New World could not be carried out, for Great Britain announced her acceptance of the principles of the Monroe Doctrine, which since then has always been recognized as the American international policy.

§ 14. Missouri and Maine were Admitted as States in Accordance with the Provisions of the Missouri Compromise.

Monroe's Administration seriously confronted the slavery issue for the first time in our national history. There had been admitted into the United States, before 1820, nine States. In 1812 the slave State of Louisiana had been admitted. In 1813 Missouri, another slave State, applied for admission. The Northerners were particularly anxious that slave territory should not become too large. Meantime, Maine applied for admission as a State.

Finally it was agreed that in all the territory ceded by France under the name of Louisiana, and lying north of thirty-six degrees, thirty minutes, north latitude, except the State of Missouri, slavery should be forever prohibited, unless such limit of land was already included in the slave States, as it already was east of the Mississippi River.

Such was the Missouri Compromise, involving the balancing of a new slave-labor State by a new free-labor State. It postponed the conflict over the existence of slavery for forty years. It allowed the North to grow strong, but at the same time intensified the division between the sections.

§ 15. The Tariff Issue Grew in Importance.

In 1824 a new and stronger protective tariff bill was passed, against the continued opposition of Webster, who represented the commercial interests of New England, still regarded as more important than its industrial interests.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. Discuss our finances in the time of Jefferson.
2. Discuss the Hamilton and Burr troubles.
3. What was "the affair of the Chesapeake"?
4. Discuss the Embargo Act.
5. What were the causes of the War with Great Britain?
6. What was the Hartford Convention?
7. What was the effect of the War upon manufacturing interests?
8. Who was the fifth President? What was his relation to the War of Independence? To Virginia? To Jefferson?
9. What is the "Monroe Doctrine"?
10. Discuss "The Missouri Compromise."
11. What was the purpose of the Tariff Act of 1824?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Contemporaries*, Vol. III., pp. 363–500: Louisiana Purchase, Napoleon, Oregon, Impressment, Chesapeake, Embargo, War of 1812, Internal Improvements, Commerce, Treaty of 1819, Monroe Doctrine.

McDonald's *Select Charters of United States History*, Vol. II.: Louisiana Purchase, Burr's Conspiracy, Treaties, Missouri Compromise, Monroe's Message. (The quotation, p. 331, is condensed.)

Consult biographies of the Presidents: *e.g.* Forman's *Jefferson, Life and Writings.* Hunt's *Madison.* Gilman's *Monroe.*

Duyckinck's *National Portrait Gallery*: Famous men.

Thorpe's *History of American People*, pp. 304–368.

Caldwell's *American History* (sources).

McMaster's *History of the People of the United States*, Vols. III., IV.

Schouler's *History of the United States*, Vols. II., III.

Consult Harper's *Encyclopedia of United States History:* Tariff Acts, Embargo. Also Larned's *History for Ready Reference.* Also *Old South Leaflets.* Also the standard encyclopedias, — Burr, Gallatin.

ADDITIONAL TOPICS.

1. Hamilton and Gallatin as Financiers.
2. The Holy Alliance.
3. Gallatin's Studies of Indian Life.
4. The Conspiracy of Burr and Blennerhasset.
5. The Effect of the War with Great Britain upon Internal Improvements, upon Manufactures, upon Immigration, upon Commerce at Sea.
6. The States that were Admitted after the War with Great Britain.
7. Dolly Madison, a Famous Mistress of the White House.
8. The Virginia Presidents.
9. End of Foreign Slave-trade: Effect upon Domestic Slave-trade.
10. Jefferson's First Inauguration.
11. States' Rights in Virginia, Kentucky, and New England.

IMPORTANT DATES.

1801–9. Jefferson is President.
1803. Louisiana is purchased for $15,000,000 from Napoleon, ruler of France.
1807. Aaron Burr is tried for treason but acquitted.
1808. The foreign slave-trade is forbidden.
1808. An Embargo Act is passed.
1809–17. Madison is President.
1812–15. War is waged with Great Britain.
1815. Napoleon is overthrown by the allies at Waterloo.
1819. We buy Florida from Spain for $5,000,000.
1819. Our Northern boundary is fixed by treaty with Great Britain.
1824. The Monroe Doctrine is announced.

CHAPTER III.

THE DEMOCRATIC WEST SEEKS CONTROL.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS, 1825–1829.

§ 1. The Administration Suffered from Personal Enmities.

MONROE'S second Administration had often been called the "Era of Good Feeling." It certainly was an era of marvelous economic development. In the Electoral College Jackson received a plurality of five votes over Adams of Massachusetts and the other candidates, of whom there were many. The personal strife among the politicians had been bitter during this era of popular good feeling. In the House of Representatives, Adams was elected. His Administration suffered constantly from factional troubles. In this respect he was even more unfortunate than his father. There were no great issues before the country. In such times personal dissensions are common.

John Quincy Adams.
Son of John Adams.
Born, 1767; died, 1848.
President: Diplomat: Senator from Massachusetts: Educator: Member of Congress.

The most important political event was the passing of the tariff in 1828, often called "the tariff of abominations," because it was satisfactory neither to the farmers of the West and South nor to the manufacturers of the North, since it raised the prices both of raw materials and of manufactured products.

§ 2. Adams Entered Congress.

John Quincy Adams, like his father, John Adams, represented the highest political ideals, honor, industriousness, and competency, but also like him was an unskilful politician. He left the Presidency in 1829 to enter Congress the next year, where he continued for seventeen years, the one ex-President in all our country's history whose career after his Administration was of great political importance. The man who had written "The Monroe Doctrine" was the man who upheld in Congress the American right of petition in the interest of Negro freedom.

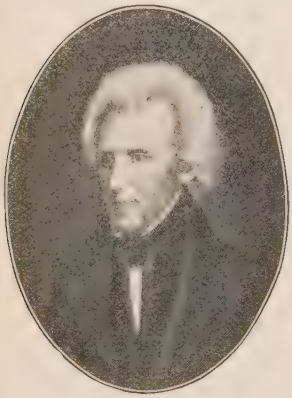
Andrew Jackson, 1829–1837.

§ 3. The Hero of New Orleans and the Invader of Florida, Andrew Jackson, Represented the Popular Demand for a Change at Washington.

The election which took place in 1828 was more bitter than any that had preceded it. The successful candidate was the President, whose success first illustrated the new opportunities here to rise from early poverty to our highest political position. General Jackson of Tennessee, who four years before had been defeated by Adams, represented the various classes that hoped for a change. These classes included those who were opposed to the rich capitalists, and who were the representatives of the growing West. Adams actually received only one less electoral vote than in the preceding election, but Jackson received all the rest. The popular vote was three times as heavy as in 1824, and Adams actually received 40% more votes than before. We have no records of the popular vote for President before 1824. A change of but a few thousand votes in Pennsylvania would have resulted in Adams's re-election.

§ 4. The President was a Democrat in Practice as well as in Theory.

The new President was a man of a type that had never been seen in the Presidential chair before. He was "a man of the people," and his candidacy and administration aroused the popular enthusiasm beyond any previous experience in American politics. Not well educated, he had that sheer force of character which is more successful in affairs than pure intellect. Himself a politician, he was associated all his life with politicians, and his Administration suffered greatly at their hands. Jackson presented a new theory of Government, which was that the people are sovereign, and must have whatever they demand.



Andrew Jackson.
Born, 1767; died, 1845.
President: General: Justice: Tennessee Supreme Court: Senator.

Jackson turned out one thousand office-holders irrespective of the value of their services, and put in his followers. This was a new idea. He believed that "To the victors belong the spoils." He believed also in "rotation in office" for the good of the service and to give experience to the citizens in public affairs. In rude though effective manner Jackson put into practice the democratic theories of Jefferson. The results of his Administration were, that internal improvements, advocated by Adams, ceased, that the great United States Bank was ruined, and that the rates of the protective tariff were greatly reduced.

§ 5. South Carolina Attempted Nullification.

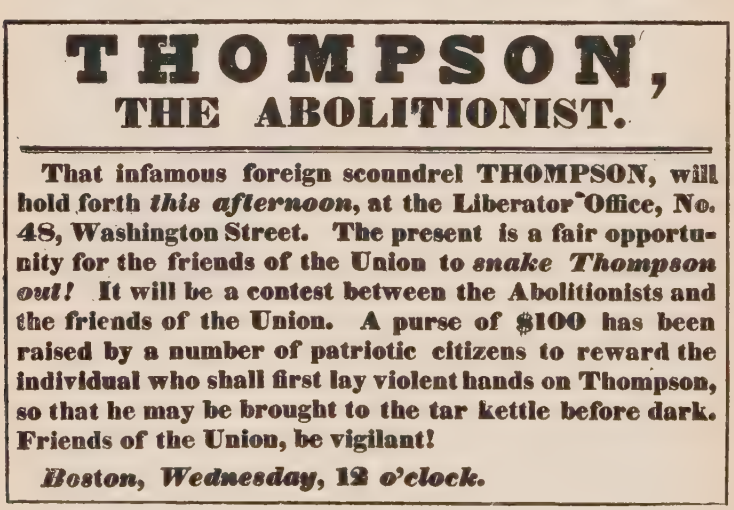
During his Administration occurred that great debate between Webster and Hayne, which brought to a focus the long controversy over the question whether the States have a right to secede. Southerner though he was, Jackson's position as President, as well as his own view of the Constitution, compelled him to take the liberal view of the Constitution; and when South Carolina proclaimed, in a State Convention, 1832, that the Tariff Acts of 1828 and 1832 were null and void, Jackson issued a proclamation denouncing the declaration as treason. He sent soldiers and naval vessels to Charleston, and persuaded Congress to pass the Force Bill. At the same time Congress passed a new tariff bill, known as the Compromise Tariff. Duties on imported goods were to be reduced gradually during the next ten years. Then South Carolina, in part placated, and in part not ready to fight the nation, promptly withdrew the Declaration.

John C. Calhoun.
Born, 1782; died, 1850.
Senator; Vice-President.

§ 6. The Anti-Slavery Agitation Became Prominent.

It was in Jackson's Administration that the Anti-slavery agitation became noteworthy. William Lloyd Garrison, a Boston printer, appeared as an Abolitionist, and in newspapers and on the platform led the opposition to slavery on moral grounds. His paper, "The Liberator," demanded

immediate abolition of slavery with compensation to the owners. The movement for abolition met with strong opposition in New England. It would not have been successful there as a doctrine, however, if the Southerners had not been far too aggressive for the welfare of their cause. John Quincy Adams, ex-President though he was, had returned to Congress as a representative from Massachu-



THOMPSON,
THE ABOLITIONIST.

That infamous foreign scoundrel THOMPSON, will hold forth *this afternoon*, at the Liberator Office, No. 48, Washington Street. The present is a fair opportunity for the friends of the Union to *snake Thompson out!* It will be a contest between the Abolitionists and the friends of the Union. A purse of $100 has been raised by a number of patriotic citizens to reward the individual who shall first lay violent hands on Thompson, so that he may be brought to the tar kettle before dark. Friends of the Union, be vigilant!

Boston, Wednesday*, 12 *o'clock.

This handbill was set up, printed and distributed, in 1835, by two boys. One was George C. Rand, who afterwards printed "Uncle Tom's Cabin." It brought together a mob of 5,000 people, who seized Garrison at Thompson's office.

setts, and was persistent in presenting petitions against slavery. He did this not because he was an Abolitionist, but because he believed in the wisdom of allowing and in the justice of expecting free speech in a republic of free men. When John C. Calhoun of South Carolina supported the proposition not to hear these petitions, he proposed a violation of the Constitution itself. With this

error the success of the Abolitionist cause was fairly begun. Calhoun even proposed that Congress pass a bill prohibiting the circulating of publications on the slavery question through the mails.

In 1837, in Illinois, Elijah P. Lovejoy, an Abolitionist, was murdered in his printing-house by a mob. This murder was followed by a wonderful meeting at Faneuil Hall, Boston, in which Wendell Phillips appeared for the first time with a great anti-slavery oration. By 1838 New England was fairly won for the anti-slavery cause.

William Lloyd Garrison.
Born, 1805; died, 1879.
Journalist: President Anti-slavery Society, 1843-1865.

§ 7. Jackson Destroyed the United States Bank.

Jackson's Administration was one of extreme interest and of many events. He made war against the United States Bank, which he believed to be a great political machine, and dangerous to the democracy of this country. In this belief he was correct. Excellent as the Bank was in many respects, both in ordinary commercial affairs and as the distributing agency of the National Government, its directors and officers were too zealous in promoting its interests to make its continuance desirable in such a nation as ours.

Nor were all its business methods safe. A result of the destruction of the Bank was the forming of "wild-cat" banks all over the country. The "wild-cat" banks ended

by producing the worst financial panic that has ever occurred in the history of the country, 1837. Yet while they lasted, they greatly encouraged the development of the West and South.

§ 8. "Remember the Alamo."

In 1835 the Mexican State, Texas, rebelled and endeavored to secure its national independence. In 1836 Santa Anna, a Mexican general, with 4,000 soldiers, attacked the Texans, numbering 140, in a hospital, and killed every man. There perished the famous David Crocket and James Bowie, American pioneer heroes. Within two months thereafter, Sam Houston had won the State its national freedom. The Texas cry, "Remember the Alamo," helped bring on the Mexican War in 1845.

"Remember the Alamo."

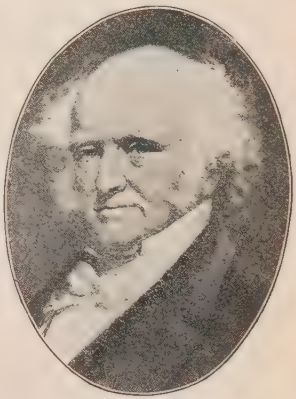
§ 9. "Hard Times" Began.

In 1837 all of the United States national debt had been paid, and the annual income exceeded expenditures by thirty-five millions of dollars. Commerce and industry were actively progressing. Yet the disturbance of the nation's financial affairs was so serious as to bring about general business depression.

Martin Van Buren, 1837–1841.

§ 10. Van Buren was too Skilful a Politician to be Popular.

"Jackson's reign," as his Administration has been styled, was not entirely over even after the election of the next President, for his friend Martin Van Buren succeeded him. For two years "hard times" prevailed, until the independent treasury system was established to take the place of the former United States Bank. In Congress a resolution was passed to receive without debate or discussion all petitions relating to slavery. Van Buren was a typical politician of the American type, but, skillful though he was, he failed to win the majority of the people in the Presidential election of 1840.



Martin Van Buren.
Born 1782; died 1862.
President; Governor of New York; Senator.

William Henry Harrison, 1841.

§ 11. Harrison Fell a Victim to the Theory, "To the Victors Belong the Spoils."

Van Buren's successor was a General like Jackson, and a popular hero. William Henry Harrison of Ohio was elected as a result of a singular political campaign wherein the Whigs hurrahed for "Tippecanoe and Tyler too." His followers erected log cabins, and carried around barrels of cider to give the voters. Four million votes were cast at this election, twelve times as many as in that of 1824,

showing the vast increase in popular interest in politics. Harrison survived his inauguration by only one month, dying of physical exhaustion from the unfortunate demands of office-seekers, who gave the old man no rest day or night.

William H. Harrison.
Born, 1773; died, 1841.
President: General: Senator.

§ 12. Party Succeeded Party in our Country in the First Half Century.

Washington, though a supporter of the Constitution, was neither Federalist nor Anti-Federalist. John Adams was a Federalist. Jefferson, the Anti-Federalist, in his Presidency was known as a Democratic Republican. Madison and Monroe were Democratic Republicans. John Quincy Adams, in his Presidency, was also a Democratic Republican. Andrew Jackson was known as a Democrat. Harrison was the first Whig President. These party names marked changes in political issues, and the changes were due to the domestic and international progress of these first five decades in our country's history. Yet one main issue continued: The early Federalists and the later Whigs were for strong central government, for a liberal construction of the powers of Congress, President, and Supreme Court; while Anti-Federalists, the Democratic Republicans, and the Democrats, were in theory opposed to strong central government. The Democrats favored what is called "strict construction," that is, giving to the National Government

no power not expressly delegated to it by the States in the Constitution. Liberal construction reduces the powers reserved to the States in the Tenth Amendment and increases the powers of the Nation.

John Tyler, 1841–1845.

§ 13. The President had no Body of Supporters.

Harrison was followed by John Tyler of Virginia, who was the first Vice-President to succeed to the Presidency because of the death of the Chief Executive. It is an interesting commentary upon the extraordinary development of the country, that but for the new railroads leading to Washington, Harrison would not have been overwhelmed by the multitude of office-seekers.

John Tyler.
Born, 1790; died, 1862.
President: Governor of Virginia: Senator.

Tyler was a Democrat rather than a Whig, but he was an anti-Jackson Democrat. He had no following, consequently, in either party, and his Administration was very unsuccessful.

A higher tariff bill, passed for the protection of domestic manufactures, was an important Whig measure. In 1842 a treaty was made relating to the boundary line with Canada from the St. Lawrence River to the Atlantic Ocean. A clause relating to the return of fugitive criminals was an important feature of the treaty, which was negotiated by Daniel Webster, Secretary of State.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. Why was the Administration of J. Q. Adams unsuccessful?
2. Why was the Tariff of Abominations so called?
3. What was unique in the later career of Adams?
4. Account for the election of Jackson.
5. How large was the popular vote in comparison with earlier elections?
6. What were some of the results of Jackson's Administration?
7. Discuss Nullification in South Carolina.
8. Discuss the policy of Calhoun.
9. Discuss the anti-slavery agitation of the Abolitionists.
10. Why did Jackson destroy the United States Bank?
11. Give an account of the affair of "the Alamo."
12. Give a brief account of Van Buren's Administration.
13. What was the extent of the popular interest in the Harrison-Van Buren campaign?
14. Discuss the division of parties from 1789 to 1841.
15. Why was Tyler's Administration unsuccessful?
16. What were the chief events of his Administration?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Contemporaries:* Vol. III., pp. 430–655: Protective Tariffs, Commercial New England, Internal Improvements, State and National Banks, "The Reserved Powers," Early Chicago, Holy Alliance, Monroe Doctrine, The Spoils System, Jackson, Modes of Travel, Abolitionism, Texas.

Hart's *Source Book*, pp. 242–268: Abolitionism, Slavery, Internal Trade, Fugitive Slaves.

Old South Leaflets: Nos. 42, 56 (The Monroe Doctrine), 78, 79, 80, 81, 129, 130.

Seward's *John Quincy Adams;* and also Morse's *Life.*

Sumner's *Andrew Jackson.*

Shepard's *Van Buren.*

Lodge's *Daniel Webster.*

Schurz's *Henry Clay.*

Von Holst's *Calhoun.*

Story of Life of Garrison by His Children.

Thorpe's *History of the American People*, pp. 345–441.

Schouler's *History of the United States*, Vols. III., IV.
McMaster's *History of the People of the United States*, Vol. V.

ADDITIONAL TOPICS FOR INQUIRY OR DISCUSSION.

1. Social Life in the "Era of Good Feeling."
2. Protective Tariffs from Hamilton's Time to Clay's.
3. Adams, the Champion of Free Petition.
4. Jackson before the Presidency.
5. Nicholas Biddle, President of the United States Bank, and his Ambitions, Political, Financial, and Social.
6. The "Spoils System."
7. "Old Hickory" as President and the "Kitchen Cabinet."
8. Railroads in their Influence upon Internal Improvements at the Public Cost.
9. Calhoun, the Political Theorist.
10. The Death of Lovejoy.
11. Wendell Phillips, the Orator of Abolitionism.
12. The Independence of Texas.
13. Davy Crockett.
14. Van Buren, the First Typical Politician of National Influence.
15. The "Log Cabin" Campaign.
16. The Progress of Parties: —
    (*a*) Federalist: National Republican, Whig.
    (*b*) Anti-Federalist: Republican, Democratic Republican, Democratic.
17. The Influence of John Marshall, Chief Justice, 1801–1834, upon the Development of National Parties.

IMPORTANT DATES.

1825–29. Administration of J. Q. Adams, sixth President.
1826. First very high tariff is adopted.
1829–37. Administration of Andrew Jackson, seventh President.
1832. South Carolina announces the Doctrine of Nullification.
1837. Death of Lovejoy, the Abolitionist.
1837–41. Administration of Martin Van Buren, eighth President.
1837. Financial depression begins.
1841. Administration of W. H. Harrison, ninth President.
1841–45. Administration of John Tyler, tenth President.

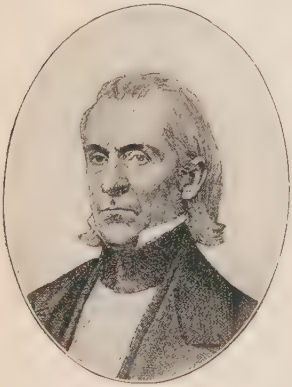
CHAPTER IV.

THE SLAVERY DISCUSSION BECAME BITTER.

JAMES K. POLK, 1845–1849.

§ 1. Polk was Elected, Pledged to the Annexation of Texas.

BY the Spanish treaty granting Florida to the United States, that portion of the Louisiana Territory which later became Texas was conceded to belong to Spain. This enormous territory had been occupied by immigrants from the Southern States, who proclaimed their independence of Mexico in 1836, and established a sovereign State with slave-holding as a fundamental principle. Their military and political leader was Sam Houston, who had won the decisive battle of San Jacinto, in the year of their independence. The Southern leaders wished to annex this Republic to the Union, but failed to secure a majority of votes in the Senate.



James Knox Polk.
Born, 1795; died, 1849.
Speaker, House of Representatives: Governor of Tennessee; President.

This was one of the most important issues of the Presidential campaign of 1844, which resulted in the election of James K. Polk of Tennessee. The Whigs had nominated Clay, who refused to take definite ground for or against the extension of slavery, and therefore failed to secure strong support in the North. Before Polk's inauguration Texas was annexed and admitted into the Union, as a result of the Democratic victory at the polls, and became a State on July 4, 1845.

§ 2. The Mexican War was Fought During His Administration.

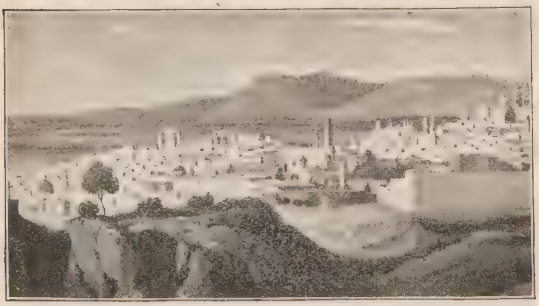
The annexation of Texas was the occasion of the Mexican War, for the Southern leaders seized upon the question of the boundary of Texas as an excuse for sending an army to the Rio Grande. The conclusion of the brilliant campaigns of the Mexican War left the United States possessed of great military prestige and of vastly increased territory. It brought us California, where in 1848 gold was discovered, — an event of the greatest importance in the development of the nation, since it led to the migration of the "Forty-niners," who went out in 1849 to engage in mining and trading on the Pacific Coast

Sam Houston.
Born, 1793; died, 1863.
President of the Republic of Texas: Soldier: U.S. Senator.

Sacramento City, California, in 1850.

§ 3. The Administration Settled the Oregon Question.

President Polk forced Congress to pass a bill reducing the tariff, and after his own Administration was over, secured the admission of California as a free State to balance Texas. He settled finally, in 1846, the disputed Oregon boundary question, accepting 49° as our northern boundary, and England's quit-claim to Oregon. Thus ended the political war-cry, "Fifty-four forty or fight," in assertion of our claim to 54° 40′ as our northern limit.



The Spanish Settlement at Los Angeles, California.

§ 4. The Opposing Parties Regarding Slavery in the Territories.

At the close of Polk's Administration Congress was beginning to divide itself regularly into two great opposing camps, — one having the banner of the Wilmot Proviso of 1846, and the other the banner of the "Squatter Sovereignty," first proclaimed by Cass, the Democratic candidate for President in 1848. By the Wilmot Proviso it was proposed that

Lewis Cass.

Born, 1782; died, 1866.
Governor of Michigan: Soldier: Diplomat: Senator: Secretary of State.

no money should be appropriated to buy territory for slavery, and that all the new territory of the United States should be free. By the doctrine of "Squatter Sovereignty" it was proposed that the people of each separate Territory should decide for themselves whether it should come into the Union as a free or a slave State.

Though an accomplished politician, Polk was too decided a man to avoid making a multitude of enemies. Anticipating defeat, he refused a nomination for a second term. He ranks now in history with Jefferson and McKinley as an able President in an epoch of territorial expansion.

Zachary Taylor, 1849–1850.

§ 5. The New President was a Southern and Western Hero.

The new President, Zachary Taylor, the Whig, who defeated Cass, the Democrat, was the general whom Polk, without the authorization of Congress, had ordered to attack Mexico. Taylor was called "Old Rough and Ready," and came to the Presidency without any political experience. Taylor had been born in Virginia, and brought up in Kentucky; he had fought in Indian wars in Illinois and Florida; and was a slave-holding planter in Louisiana. He was a popular war-hero of the type of Jackson and Harrison. Like the latter, he survived his election for only a brief time, dying of disease induced by overwork.

Zachary Taylor.
Born, 1784; died, 1850.
President: General.

§ 6. The Compromise of 1850 was a Surrender to the Slave-holders of the South.

Taylor found the Southern leaders very angry over the admission of California as a free State. This and other matters Henry Clay, the great peacemaker, hoped to settle by the Compromise of 1850, which was really not a compromise, but a surrender by the North to the demands of the South. By it slavery was confirmed in the District of Columbia, Utah and New Mexico were organized as Territories upon the plan of "squatter sovereignty," and a large sum of money was paid to the slave-holding State of Texas for giving up her claim to part of New Mexico. Congress was proclaimed to have no jurisdiction over the interstate slave trade, and a severe fugitive slave law was passed. Slave-holder though he was, Taylor did not support this Compromise. He died before it was voted upon by Congress.

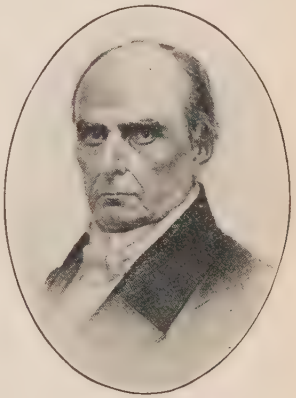
Millard Fillmore, 1850–1853.

Millard Fillmore.
Born, 1800; died, 1874.
President: Comptroller New York State.

§ 7. New England was Against Compromise.

Taylor's successor, Fillmore of New York, his Vice-President, was the bitter enemy of William H. Seward of New York, the strong anti-slavery statesman who had largely controlled Taylor's Administration. In Seward's place as Secretary of State Webster was installed, so that the Compromise was carried through. For his support of this Compromise in the East, especially in his

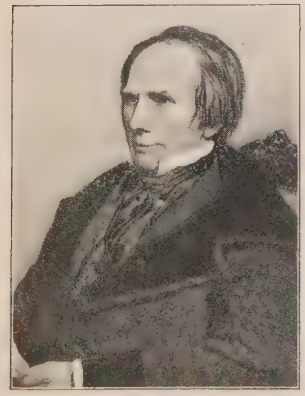
famous Seventh of March speech in the National Senate, 1850, the most famous of all American speeches, Daniel Webster lost his hold upon his New England constituency, and died soon after from grief. Yet the speech was successful, and delayed the great War ten years.



Daniel Webster.
Born, 1782; died, 1852.
"Expounder of the Constitution."
Senator from Massachusetts: Secretary of State: Orator.

§ 8. The Fugitive Slave Law of 1850 Aroused Great Opposition.

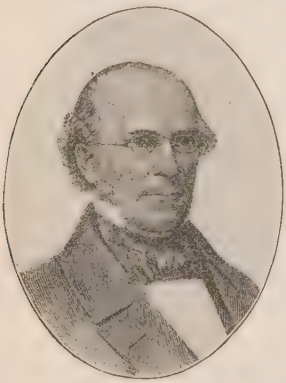
The Fugitive Slave Law of 1850 did more to bring on the great Civil War than any other single cause. It was in itself an unnecessary and an injudicious law, for only one slave in three thousand escaped annually until it was passed. It aroused violent opposition in the North, and led more slaves than before to try to run away. Some of its provisions denied the right of a jury trial to fugitive slaves, permitted any person to claim a Negro as a runaway slave without evidence, and denied to the captured Negro the ancient right of *habeas corpus*, by which a man may be released from jail on bond upon the appeal of his attorney.



Henry Clay.
Born, 1777; died, 1852.
Arbiter between Freedom and Slavery, between the North and the South.
Senator from Kentucky: Speaker of the House: Secretary of State: Orator.

The Act was defective in two respects. It did not prevent the rescuers of a Negro captive from setting up the *habeas corpus* for him. And no means were provided to punish a State for encouraging slaves to run away. These two defects led to "underground railways," as they were called, where stations were set up by philanthropic anti-slavery people, in which slaves could hide during pursuit. By means of these railways thousands of Negroes were "spirited" from slavery in the South to freedom in Canada.

The disturbances — and even riots — caused by attempts to secure fugitive slaves in accordance with this Act, brought the facts of slavery prominently before the minds of the thinking citizens of the North. The fines and other expenses of Abolitionists caught in the work of rescuing slaves ruined some of them and their friends, making them still more bitter against slavery. Many Northern States passed personal liberty laws. These laws imposed fines on State officers who assisted in the capture of fugitive slaves, dismissed from the bar of the courts lawyers who prosecuted in these cases, and forbade Negro captives from being confined in State prisons. To effect one capture, that of Anthony Burns in Massachusetts, cost the National Government one hundred thousand dollars.



Theodore Parker.
Born, 1820; died, 1860.
Orator: Reformer: Preacher.

Such was the beginning of the feud between the States that led some to call the War of Secession, 1861–1865, "The War between the States."

CAUTION!!

COLORED PEOPLE

OF BOSTON, ONE & ALL,

You are hereby respectfully CAUTIONED and advised, to avoid conversing with the

Watchmen and Police Officers of Boston,

For since the recent ORDER OF THE MAYOR & ALDERMEN, they are empowered to act as

KIDNAPPERS

AND

Slave Catchers,

And they have already been actually employed in KIDNAPPING, CATCHING, AND KEEPING SLAVES. Therefore, if you value your LIBERTY, and the *Welfare of the Fugitives* among you, *Shun* them in every possible manner, as so many *HOUNDS* on the track of the most unfortunate of your race.

Keep a Sharp Look Out for KIDNAPPERS, and have TOP EYE open.

***APRIL* 24, 1851.**

Theodore Parker's Placard Against the Fugitive Slave Law.

§ 9. "Uncle Tom's Cabin" was Published.

Harriet Beecher Stowe.
Born, 1811; died, 1896.
Poet: Novelist.

In 1852 Harriet Beecher Stowe published "Uncle Tom's Cabin," a wonderful novel about slavery, which greatly affected public sentiment in the North. Nevertheless, in the election of that year the Democrats who defended the Act were successful.

Franklin Pierce, 1853–1857.

§ 10. Pierce was Elected to Quiet the Anti-slavery Agitation, which Nevertheless Grew Greater.

In 1852 several parties placed candidates in nomination for the Presidency. Of these the two of note were Franklin Pierce of New Hampshire, nominated by the Democrats, and General Winfield Scott of Virginia, a hero of the War of 1812 and of the Mexican War. Pierce was successful, partly because the independent voters thought that with the Democrats in power there would be less controversy over slavery, and partly because Scott had many bitter personal enemies in prominent positions, who worked hard against his election. The defeat of Scott marked the end of the career of the Whig party, which was killed by

Franklin Pierce.
Born, 1804; died, 1869.
U.S. Senator from New Hampshire; General; President.

the compromises of Clay. In the year 1853, the Free Soilers proclaimed the phrases "free soil, free speech, free labor, and free men." Seward's "higher law" of "conscience above compromise" was declared in the platform of a great national party. Pierce was unfortunate in placing in his Cabinet Jefferson Davis, son-in-law of the late General Taylor. Davis, who later became President of the Confederate States, gave him much unwise advice. Pierce, though well educated, was deficient in power to discern "the signs of the times."

§ 11. The Struggles in "Bleeding Kansas" Led to the Forming of the Republican Party.

In 1854 was passed the Kansas-Nebraska Act, probably the worst law in the history of the United States. It organized Kansas and Nebraska as Territories so that they might enter the Union as States upon the plan of "squatter sovereignty," which allowed a majority of the citizens in a Territory to decide whether a State should be slave or free. This Act was not in harmony with the Missouri Compromise, which had already provided for freedom in the Louisiana Purchase north of 36° 31′ except Missouri. Immediately following the passage of the Act bands of "Sons of the South," commonly styled "Border Ruffians," pushed into Kansas. Meantime the free-labor settlers drew up a free-State Constitution. New England formed a great immigration society to secure Kansas for freedom.

The result was bloodshed and riot all over eastern Kansas. In these encounters John Brown became prominent. "Bleeding Kansas" became the one great political theme. Its terrible experiences resulted in the organization of a new Republican party, which included the old "Free Soilers," the Abolitionists, and the opponents of the Nebraska-Kansas

Act. In the campaign of 1856, the Democrats were successful in securing the votes of all the Southern States, and of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Indiana, Missouri, and California. Nevertheless the capturing of the other Northern States by this new party struck terror to the hearts of the slavery leaders who saw their days of ascendency in National affairs passing away.

James Buchanan, 1857–1861.

§ 12. The Dred Scott Decision.

Another scholar, James Buchanan of Pennsylvania, succeeded Pierce, and was equally wrong on the great issues, though an expert politician and diplomatist. The Fugitive Slave Law of 1850, and the Kansas-Nebraska Act, followed by the appearance of "Uncle Tom's Cabin," had prepared the way for the great Northern agitation which followed the Dred Scott Decision of 1857.

James Buchanan.
Born, 1791; died, 1868.
U.S. Senator from Pennsylvania: Diplomat: Secretary of State: President.

Dred Scott had been taken by his master to Illinois, a free State, thence to the Nebraska Territory, and thence to Missouri, a slave State, where he asked for his liberty, on the ground that life in the free North had made him free. The Supreme Court of the United States decided that since Dred Scott was mere chattel property, he was not a citizen, and could not sue in the Court; but the Chief Justice, Roger B.

Taney, went on to say in substance, that Congress had no right of legislation in the matter of slavery in the Territories.

This led to the great Lincoln and Douglas debate in 1858 in Illinois, in which Lincoln declared: "I admit that the emigrant to Kansas and Nebraska is competent to govern himself, but I deny his right to govern any other person without that person's consent. . . . A house divided against itself cannot stand. I believe this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free. I do not expect the house to fall, but I expect it will cease to be divided. It will become all one thing or all the other."

Engine House at Harper's Ferry.

Lincoln did not win in this debate. Douglas was reëlected Senator by concessions to anti-slavery sentiment; but he thus offended his Southern supporters and made it impossible for him to be elected President two years later.

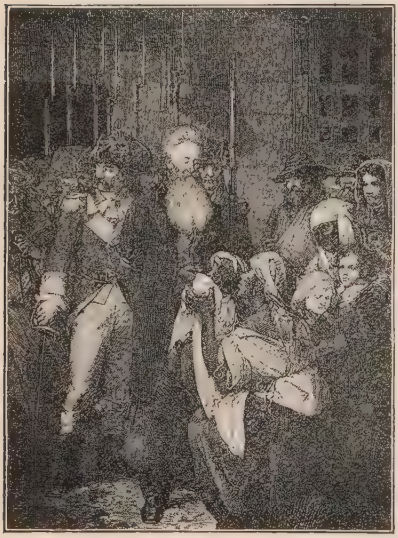
Seward also declared the struggle between slavery and freedom an "irrepressible conflict." The slave-holding aristocracy replied that Congress ought to pass laws to protect the owners of slaves as property in the Territories.

§ 13. A Southern White Man Urged Abolition.

In 1857 a book published in North Carolina, Helper's "Impending Crisis," advised all the whites of the South who held no slaves to support the abolition movement. The popularity of this book alarmed the slave-holders.

§ 14. John Brown Tried to Raise an Insurrection.

The great political and religious controversies over slavery were intensified by John Brown's raid into Virginia, and by his capture and execution, 1859. John Brown, with nineteen followers, seized the United States Arsenal at Harper's Ferry, with the intention to start an insurrection that would set the slaves at the South free. He was overcome by armed troops, convicted in the courts of Virginia, and executed. Brown was a lawbreaker and a revolutionist, but by a fanatic's death he became a hero and a martyr in the eyes of the Abolitionists of the North. His attempt both angered and frightened all slaveholders.



John Brown Going to Execution.
Born, 1800; executed, 1859. Agitator.

§ 15. Secession was Proposed.

Toward the end of Buchanan's Administration, some Southern leaders began to propose that the Southern States secede from the Union. Calhoun in earlier days had defended secession as constitutional. For a dozen years that wonderful orator, William L. Yancey of Alabama, had urged this course. He believed it necessary for the security of the Southern social system. Every member of Buchanan's Cabinet joined this movement, though Buchanan himself was loyal to the North.

§ 16. Several Parties Presented Candidates in 1860.

William Lowndes Yancey.
Born, 1814; died, 1863.
Orator.

The election of 1860 was exciting to the highest degree. Several candidates were placed in nomination for the Presidency by different factions and parties. The Northern Democrats nominated Senator Douglas, and the Southern Democrats Breckinridge. A new and conservative party, called the Constitutional Union Party, placed Governor Bell of Tennessee in nomination. But the Republicans at Chicago nominated Abraham Lincoln as a compromise after a long contest between the most prominent candidates, Seward and Chase.

§ 17. The Southern States United to Protect Their Social System.

The sixteen years of bitter discussion over slavery that began with the annexation of Texas, 1845, were ending in a great war, their inevitable outcome. Polk of Tennessee, a Democrat, had brought slave-holding Texas into the Union, and had won the great Southwest, by force of arms, against many indignant protests. Taylor of Louisiana, a Whig, and Fillmore of New York, a Whig, had seen the North aroused over fugitive slave laws that were intended to make the whole Union a great corral-yard for Negroes. Pierce of New Hampshire, and Buchanan of Pennsylvania, Democrats, had heard and seen civil dissensions, riots, and bloodshed, over the question that would not down.

Meantime population had grown, wealth had increased, more States had entered the Union, and the people were gaining in intelligence and morality. Meantime, too, the South was being passed by the North in the march of progress. Slave-labor did not increase population, wealth, intelligence, and morality as fast as did free labor. In defence of their whole social system the Southerners felt compelled to unite in order to form a new, separate and harmonious nation.

Banner of South Carolina at the Secession Convention.

§ 18. Eleven Southern States Seceded.

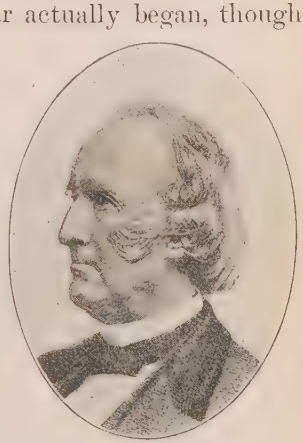
The election of Lincoln was followed by the immediate secession of South Carolina, the result of a convention held in December. In the session of Congress preceding the inauguration of Lincoln a new compromise was proposed. This provided for the carrying out of the Missouri Compromise with "squatter sovereignty" in the new States, and the return of fugitive slaves, or else payment for them by the National Government. This

compromise would have been carried in Congress but for the anxiety of the Southern leaders to push matters rapidly.

The secession of South Carolina was followed by like action in Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, and Louisiana, in January, and in Texas in February. Only in the last-named State did the people have a direct vote on the matter. In all other States the decision was made by Conventions. The secession of Virginia, Tennessee, Arkansas, and North Carolina, followed from April to May. For this stupendous movement out of the Union there was no adequate cause. The Democrats retained a majority in Congress, and no legislation against slavery was possible. Some leaders of the South were vigorously opposed to secession.

§ 19. The South was United, but the North was Divided.

Nevertheless, as soon as the war actually began, though only one voter in seven was a slave-holder, the South was almost a unit in its intention to set up by force of arms an independent slave-holding Confederacy. In the North many statesmen were fully agreed that the formation of the new nation ought to be allowed. Horace Greeley, the famous anti-slavery agitator and Republican journalist, and Wendell Phillips, the great Abolitionist orator, took this ground. Not even Abraham Lincoln foresaw that a critical and desperate war was to rage for four years upon this issue.



Wendell Phillips.
Born, 1811; died, 1884.
Orator.

CHARLESTON

MERCURY

EXTRA:

Passed unanimously at 1.15 o'clock, P. M., December 20th, 1860.

AN ORDINANCE

To dissolve the Union between the State of South Carolina and other States united with her under the compact entitled "The Constitution of the United States of America."

We, the People of the State of South Carolina, in Convention assembled, do declare and ordain, and it is hereby declared and ordained,

That the Ordinance adopted by us in Convention, on the twenty-third day of May, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-eight, whereby the Constitution of the United States of America was ratified, and also, all Acts and parts of Acts of the General Assembly of this State, ratifying amendments of the said Constitution, are hereby repealed; and that the union now subsisting between South Carolina and other States, under the name of "The United States of America," is hereby dissolved.

THE

UNION

IS

DISSOLVED!

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. What was the political issue in the Presidential campaign of 1844?
2. What were some of the results of the Mexican War?
3. What were other important territorial matters dealt with in Polk's Administration?
4. Contrast the "Wilmot Proviso" and "Squatter Sovereignty."
5. Characterize Polk as President.
6. What was the cause of Taylor's election?
7. Discuss the "Compromise of 1850."
8. Discuss Webster's "Seventh of March" speech.
9. Discuss the Fugitive Slave Law of 1850.
10. How did the Northern States resist the Law?
11. Who were the Presidents from 1850 to 1861?
12. What were the ideals of the Free-soilers?
13. What troubles led to the formation of the Republican party?
14. Discuss the Dred Scott Decision.
15. What was the issue in the Lincoln-Douglas debate?
16. Discuss John Brown.
17. Discuss *Uncle Tom's Cabin* and *The Impending Crisis.*
18. Trace the development of the slavery contest from 1845 to 1861.
19. What States seceded?
20. Compare the state of public sentiment North and South.

SUGGESTED READINGS.

W. H. Smith's *Political History of Slavery*, Vol. I.
Caldwell's *American History* (sources).
Hart's *Contemporaries*, Vol. IV, pp. 11–210.
Sparks's *Expansion of the American People*, pp. 300–365.
Wilson's *Division and Re-union*, pp. 133–212.
Goldwin Smith's *The United States, Political History*, pp. 212–244.
Stanwood's *History of Presidential Elections.*
Schouler's *History of the United States*, Vol. V.
MacDonald's *Select Charters*, Vol. II., Webster's Speeches, Dred Scott Decision, Laws, etc.
Thorpe's *History of the American People*, pp. 384–444.
Johnston's *American Politics.*
Wilson's *Rise and Fall of the Slave Power.*
Shepard's *Martin Van Buren.*
Burgess's *The Middle Period.*

Schurz's *Henry Clay.*
Rhodes's *History of the U. S. from the Compromise of 1850*, Vol. I.
Chittendon's *Abraham Lincoln's Speeches.*
Lives of *Lincoln* by Morse, Hapgood, Curtis.
Greeley's *The American Conflict*, Vol. I.
Von Holst's *John Brown.*
Various other *Lives* of the men of the period; e.g., American Statesman series, especially McLaughlin's *Lewis Cass* and Von Holst's *Calhoun.*

These are but a few references to the immense body of historical literature that deals with the causes of the War of Secession.

ADDITIONAL TOPICS FOR INQUIRY OR DISCUSSION.

1. Texas, with particular reference to its early citizens.
2. The Discovery of Gold in California.
3. Clay's Defeats for the Presidency.
4. "Uncle Tom's Cabin:" Is it a fair picture of slavery?
5. "Underground Railways."
6. The Case of Anthony Burns.
7. Free-soilers and other Temporary Political Parties.
8. "Bleeding Kansas."
9. John Brown: Hero or Criminal?
10. Lincoln's Speeches: What is true Americanism? See page ii.
11. Dred Scott.
12. The Secession Ordinances.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1845–49. Polk is the eleventh President of the United States.
1845. Annexation and Admission of Texas.
1846–47. Mexican War.
1848. Discovery of Gold in California.
1849–50. Taylor is the twelfth President.
1850. Compromise of 1850 and Fugitive Slave Act of 1850.
1850–53. Fillmore is the thirteenth President.
1852. Publication of Mrs. Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin.*
1853–57. Pierce is the fourteenth President.
1854. Nebraska Act.
1857–1861. Buchanan is the fifteenth President.
1857. Dred Scott Decision.
1859. John Brown's Raid.
1860. Election of a President not pro-slavery.

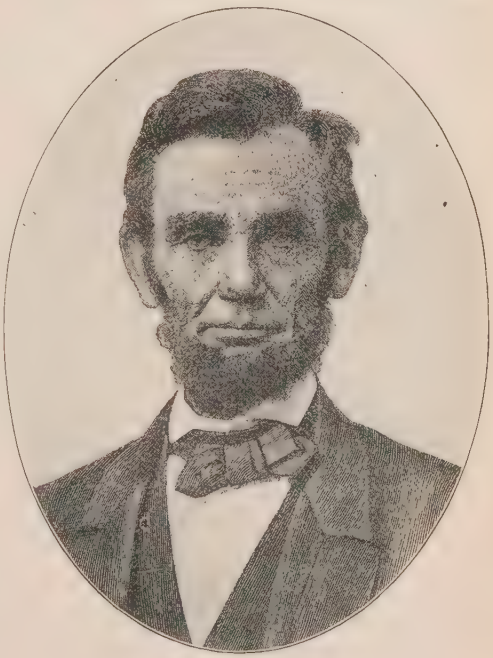
CHAPTER V.

RENDING THE NATION AND UNITING IT AGAIN.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN, 1861–1865.

§ 1. Lincoln Had the Constant Support of the "Plain People."

THE new President was not only the most skilful politician ever in Washington, but he was also a man of resolute will, infinite patience, sound morality, and unchanging enthusiasm for humanity. Lincoln had in him elements of the same stock that had given George Washington, Patrick Henry, Thomas Jefferson, John Marshall, and Henry Clay to the nation. He knew just how far from day to day the "plain people," whom he understood and loved, would go with him upon the great issues of the War. He led them with skill, and they followed him with intelligence and devotion.



Abraham Lincoln.
Born, 1809; killed, 1865.
Soldier: Member of Congress from Illinois: President.

§ 2. Lincoln had been Perfectly Trained for His Task.

The "plain people" knew the story of Lincoln's early life. Sprung from generations of pioneers and backwoodsmen, he had the frank sincerity and the warm heartedness of the free poor. In this sinewy giant there was true genius. Here was a man quick to surrender trifles in order to protect essentials. Poorly educated in early life, he studied with private teachers after he was already a successful lawyer, so that the President who had been a "rail-splitter" and "flatboatmen" came to his high office, and to the most frightful task that any ruler ever faced, a true scholar, a thinker, a statesman. He had mastered every detail of the politics of his State, had served a term in Congress at Washington, and in many speeches had expounded the meaning of Christian Americanism. He was to show himself master of the politics of a divided nation, and the living example of heroic fortitude through evil and through good report.

Such was the man upon whom for four years the destiny of a great people slowly turned. Fate was conquered by his will. Again and again it was Lincoln alone of men in office who saw the right thing to do, and how to do it. He overcame the South; yet no man in all the South loved it as well as he. Abraham Lincoln was a Southerner in blood and birth. He overcame the South because he consolidated the North. Exponent of the true gospel of Americanism, — the independence of each and all, with opportunity open to all, — sympathetic, persistent, perfectly honest; he became the martyr and the final sacrifice for all the errors of human slavery in a nation dedicated to freedom and equality in "life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness."

Too busy to seek riches, Abraham Lincoln spent his life

in learning wisdom. As a ruler of men he stands the supreme example of success in a crisis not less than the most terrible mankind ever confronted. The failure of the Union would have been the end of man's dream of democracy.

§ 3. The Attack on Fort Sumter United the North in the Defence of the Union.

On April 14, 1861, the soldiers of South Carolina secured possession, after a three days' fight, of Fort Sumter in Charleston Harbor. The next day President Lincoln issued a proclamation calling for seventy-five thousand volunteers. The question in the North was no longer that of slavery, but of the preservation of the Union. Millions in the North did not care whether the Negroes were slaves or not: they did care whether there were two nations, one slave and one free, to wrangle and to fight here over anti-slavery documents in the mails and over the return of fugitive slaves. The ex-Presidents Franklin Pierce and James Buchanan, though strongly sympathizing with the Southern aristocracy, came to the support of the Union cause. So did Stephen A. Douglas, Lincoln's great opponent, never so great as in the support he gave the Union upon the oratorical platform during the first year of the Administration. Immediately volunteers for the Union Army crowded forward.

Jefferson Davis.
Born, 1808; died, 1889.
President Confederate States of America: Soldier: U. S. Senator from Mississippi: U. S. Secretary of War.

§ 4. Four Slave-Holding States Remained in the Union.

The first contests were over the question whether Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri, all of them slave States, would join the Confederacy. This discussion resulted in the immediate secession of West Virginia from Virginia. Delaware came out boldly for the Union. Maryland and Kentucky followed after some discussion. Missouri was won after a military struggle, which ended in the defeat of the Confederates in 1862. Eastern Tennessee tried to secede from Tennessee and to stay in the Union.

§ 5. The Southerners were Greatly Outnumbered.

The seceding slave States, eleven in number, contained 9,000,000 inhabitants, of whom over 3,000,000 were Negroes. The loyal Union States numbered 22,000,000 whites. If the North could be organized, the defeat of the South was inevitable.

Capitol of the Confederate States of America, at Richmond, Virginia.

At the beginning of the War there were as many Southerners in arms as Northerners, but as it progressed the Northern soldiers came to outnumber the Southerners two, and even three, to one. In the North was a magnificent industrial organization, while the South had practically no factories. The Southern sea-coast towns were blockaded, and all outside supplies effectually shut out.

§ 6. The Money System of the North was Superior to that of the South.

However, the final victory was by no means easy for the Unionists of the North, despite their great resources. Immense sums of money had to be raised upon the bonds of the United States, specie payments ceased, and gold went to a premium. Irredeemable paper currency was issued, and heavy duties both as tariffs and as internal revenue taxes were imposed. The National Bank system was organized, primarily to

Paper Money of the Confederacy.

help sell the bonds of the Government, but secondarily to promote the interests of trade. On their side the Confederates were obliged to issue immense amounts of bonds, which were sold only at ruinous rates of discount. At last paper money was issued, redeemable only in case of victory. These notes were soon almost worthless in the markets.

§ 7. The Sacrifices of the South.

The blockade of the ports of the seceding States prevented the shipment of cotton, and poverty and distress ruled after 1862 throughout the entire territory of the Confederacy. The value of ordinary articles of commerce will be appreciated from the fact that in Richmond, Virginia, the Capital of the Confederacy, a pound of coffee was worth $2.50 in gold, and brandy was worth $25 in gold per quart. Salt was worth $1 per pound in Richmond just before its evacuation by the Confederates.

During the War highroads were torn up, bridges and buildings were destroyed, and agriculture was greatly neglected. Some of the wagon roads were hardly traveled over for years. The Southern people lost all their slaves. The War cost them $2,000,000,000 worth of human property. A paralysis settled upon business, and there was poverty everywhere. The sacrifices of Southerners for "The Cause" surpassed even those of the Continentals in the War of Independence.

§ 8. "The Trent Affair" Concerned the Rights of Neutrals.

Early in the War, the diplomatic affairs of the Nation were extremely difficult and delicate to handle. The South had exported annually great amounts of cotton to be made up into goods in England. There the commercial classes were strongly disposed to assist the Confederacy. The ruling

aristocrats were almost unanimous for the South. The free workingmen, however, and the Queen were anti-slavery.

In 1861 a Union naval Captain, Wilkes, seized two Confederate Commissioners, Mason and Slidell, on the British steamer, *Trent*, bound for Europe, where they were intending to secure foreign recognition of the "new Nation." Lincoln, however, ordered their release. Once in Europe, they were not as successful as they hoped to be, for the Union's diplomatic affairs were admirably managed, especially in England, where Charles Francis Adams, son of John Quincy Adams, represented the United States.

Stanton Chase Lincoln Welles Smith Seward Blair Bates

Cabinet of President Lincoln, January 1, 1863.

§ 9. The Emancipation Proclamation, Jan. 1, 1863.

The greatest political event of Lincoln's Administration was the publication of the Emancipation Proclamation in January, 1863. Long before then, Lincoln had formed the

intention of publishing such a proclamation as soon as it was wise to do so. By it he hoped to satisfy the Northern anti-slavery conscience and to explain the Nation's position to the world. The victory at Antietam, Maryland, in September, 1862, gave him the opportunity, and he immediately issued a preliminary Proclamation.

The final Emancipation Proclamation set free all persons in slavery in every seceding State. The slave States that stood by the Union abolished slavery later by their own legislation. The Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, abolishing slavery, was, however, not passed by Congress until 1865 in January, and did not go into force until ratified by two-thirds of the States in December of that year.

§ 10. Henry Ward Beecher Went to England.

In the Fall of 1863, the President encouraged Henry Ward Beecher to go to England, and to talk there with the "plain people" about the issues of the great War. Beecher was a brother of the author of "Uncle Tom's Cabin," and a great orator. He had a rough reception at first, for England's manufacturing and commercial interests had been greatly injured by the blockade of the Southern ports; but the middle class people were enthusiastic in the Union cause. The starving cotton-workers saw in Negro emancipation the progress of humanity. The aristocracy was never converted but dared to

Henry Ward Beecher.
Born, 1813; died, 1887.
Preacher: Orator.

do nothing important for the Secessionist cause. American diplomacy and American oratory together kept England neutral, and gave the Union armies a chance to win their vast and fiercely fought campaigns.

§ 11. The Confederacy Equipped the Alabama in Scotland.

In one respect only did Great Britain permit assistance to the Confederate cause. In English ship-yards were fitted out several cruisers, among them the *Alabama*, that did great damage to American shipping on the high seas; for which damage England was later compelled to pay heavily.

In all Europe only Russia openly favored the Union cause. There in 1861 Czar Alexander had set free the serfs.

§ 12. There was Opposition to the War in the North.

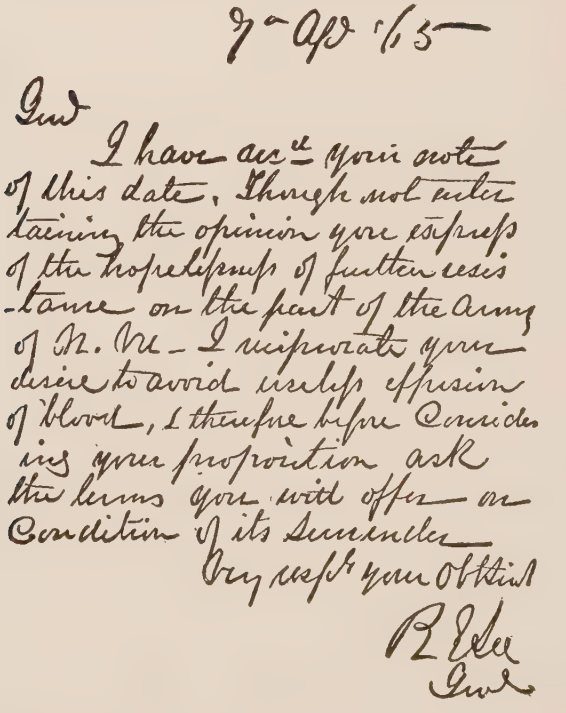
The War was not prosecuted without opposition in the North. This opposition was partly due to the necessary drafting of citizens to enter the Union armies, partly to the activity of those who saw in the raising of cotton by slaves some financial benefit to themselves, and partly to the agitation of theorists who believed the National Government had no right to compel the seceding States to return. The Government at times was forced to pay bounties and to draft men for the armies.

§ 13. Lincoln was Re-elected by a Great Majority of the Voting States.

In 1864 Lincoln was re-elected, his opponent being General McClellan, formerly Commanding General of the Union Army in Virginia. Lincoln carried all the Union States except Delaware and Kentucky. The result of this political victory was an immense increase in the number of men who volunteered in defence of the Union.

§ 14. The War Ended, April 9, 1865, and Lincoln Was Assassinated, April 14.

On April 9, 1865, at Appomattox Court House, Virginia, the Southern Confederacy came to an end through the


9th Apl 65

Genl

I have rec'd your note of this date. Though not entertaining the opinion your expresses of the hopelessness of further resistance on the part of the Army of N. Va. - I reciprocate your desire to avoid useless effusion of blood, & therefore before considering your proposition ask the terms you will offer on condition of its surrender.

Very respy your Obt Svt

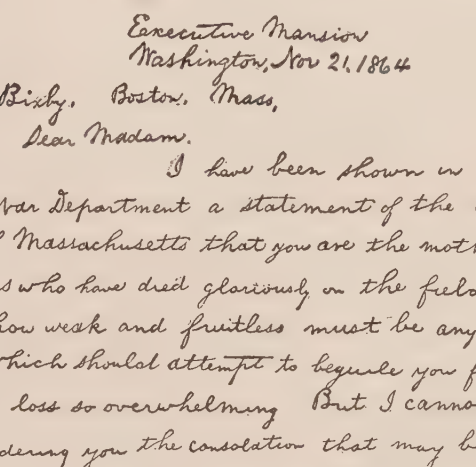
R E Lee
Genl

To Genl U. S. Grant
Comdg Armies of the U. States

The Surrender of General Lee.

surrender of their great General, Robert E. Lee. Five days later Lincoln was assassinated by a sympathizer with the

South, John Wilkes Booth, who was insane at the time. In Lincoln's death, the Nation lost the one man who knew how to bring the North and the South together in sympathy and



Executive Mansion
Washington, Nov 21. 1864

To Mrs Bixby. Boston. Mass,

Dear Madam.

I have been shown in the files of the War Department a statement of the Adjutant General of Massachusetts that you are the mother of five sons who have died gloriously on the field of battle I feel how weak and fruitless must be any word of mine which should attempt to beguile you from the grief of a loss so overwhelming But I cannot refrain from tendering you the consolation that may be found in the thanks of the republic they died to save I pray that our Heavenly Father may assuage the anguish of your bereavement, and leave you only the cherished memory of the loved and lost, and the solemn pride that must be yours to have laid so costly a sacrifice upon the altar of freedom

Yours very sincerely and respectfully.

A. Lincoln.

A Letter of President Lincoln, 1864.

in purpose. Such was his singular prescience that on leaving home to assume the Presidency, and frequently thereafter, he had expressed his anticipation of a martyr's death.

Andrew Johnson, 1865–1869.

§ 15. Great Difficulties Confronted the New Chief Executive.

The new President had been brought up under such conditions of illiteracy that he was unable to read until almost old enough to vote. Andrew Johnson came from Tennessee, and intended to carry out Lincoln's policy, but was unable, from want of tact, to do so. Lincoln always declared that the Confederate States were merely absent from the Union. Johnson held, therefore, that the States ought not to be punished, and that the Southern leaders ought to be pardoned.

Andrew Johnson.
Born, 1808; died, 1875.
Governor of Tennessee: Member of Congress: U. S. Senator: President.

It needed the utmost political skill to bring concord out of discord. One million men, North and South, had been killed or maimed. The War had cost the North in one way and another ten billion dollars; the South had lost nearly as many billions more. The military and naval forces were to be disbanded, the immense national debt of three and a half billion dollars was to be paid, the wounded Union soldiers and sailors and the widows and orphans of the dead must be cared for, and the re-united North and South must adjust themselves to the conditions of peace. The million of men in the Union service were speedily mustered out, and returned to the ordinary vocations of life, most of them to win success, for the army and navy had been schools for the education of men.

§ 16. Johnson Failed to Secure Support for his Measures.

The great task of Johnson's Administration was the reconstruction of the governments of the Southern States. Unfortunately, because Johnson had been a War Democrat, he failed to secure Republican support in Congress. He had been a loyal Unionist as Governor of Tennessee. He had levied assessments upon rich Southerners, who were afraid, as he said, to fight in the Confederate army; and he gave the money thus secured to the poor mothers left at home to care for children while their fathers were in the Southern armies. He had made a notable record in politics and statesmanship. But as a national leader he was unfortunate in his methods of seeking support for his views.

Some of the Southern States, immediately upon the renewal of State government under the Union, passed laws intended to neutralize the effects of Negro emancipation. These provided that Negroes should be compelled to work whether they wished to do so or not. Angered by these laws, the majority in Congress proposed to treat the Southern States as Territories, and to require them to go through the process of being admitted into the Union as States. Johnson denounced this policy.

§ 17. The Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution Was Adopted and Ratified.

Johnson also opposed the work of the Freedmen's Bureau, which was largely that of arbitrating disputes between the employer and Negroes, and between the Negroes themselves. He regarded this work as a usurpation of the rights and responsibilities of government.

In 1866 the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution, making Negroes citizens of the United States, was passed

in Congress, and secured the required two-thirds majority of the States, though the seven late Confederate States then back in the Union voted against it.

§ 18. The Reconstruction Act was Distasteful to the South.

In 1867 Congress passed the Reconstruction Act, which it had been Lincoln's hope to avoid. By this Act the late Confederate States, except Tennessee, were formed into five military districts, each under an army officer appointed by the President. In them the ex-Confederates could not vote. The result was that a great body of white political adventurers from the North swarmed into the South. These men were called "carpet-baggers," because they had little or no property. They were represented in political caricatures as carrying their belongings in hand-valises or "carpet-bags," so-called from the material of which they were made. These adventurers speedily took possession of the various State Governments. The Act also provided that the voters in States yet out of the Union should elect delegates to a Constitutional Convention, and then apply for admission.

§ 19. The President was Impeached, but Acquitted.

In 1868, as the result of his long and constant quarrels with Congress, President Johnson was impeached. His opponents failed to convict him by a vote of thirty-five to nineteen in the Senate, one short of the required two-thirds majority. The question at issue was whether the President had the right to remove Cabinet officers without the consent of the Senate, and irrespective of any law of Congress to the contrary. His impeachment was a partisan error. Johnson was far too sincere a patriot to deserve condemnation for his course, however tactless it may have been,

§ 20. International Affairs were Well Managed.

During Johnson's Administration, the Empire established contrary to the Monroe Doctrine, by the French in Mexico several years earlier with Maximilian, the Austrian Archduke, as Emperor, collapsed, and Maximilian himself was executed in 1866. Another important event of this Administration was the acquisition of Alaska by purchase from Russia for $7,200,000. This was accomplished by Seward, Secretary of State, and by some was called "Seward's folly."

§ 21. The Reconstruction Policy Won in the Election of 1868.

In 1868 the Presidential campaign had as its issue the support of the various Reconstruction Acts. This was advocated by the Republicans, and opposed by the Democrats. Virginia, Georgia, Mississippi, and Texas had not yet conformed to the requirements of these Acts, and were still out of the Union of States. The Republican party, supporting the Reconstruction Acts, was successful in electing General Grant of Illinois, the hero of the Civil War. His opponent was Horatio Seymour of New York, a War Democrat.

§ 22. The Southerners Organized Secret Societies.

The final year of this Administration, bringing, as it did, the proposed Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution, saw the organization of the secret societies of the Southern States, known as the Ku-Klux. These secret societies terrified the Negroes, with the intention of preventing them from voting. The Southern whites proposed to secure the control of the State Governments from the "carpet-baggers," and were, in several cases, successful. Many small battles were fought between the Ku-Klux and the carpet-baggers. This domestic warfare continued for ten years or more.

§ 23. The Problems of Reconstruction were Political, Economic, and Social.

The Administrations of Lincoln and Johnson saw the beginning rather than the end of the reconstruction of the governments of the ex-Confederate States. The end did not come until the Administration of Hayes, 1877, when the Federal troops were withdrawn. Reconstruction began when West Virginia was admitted, 1863, and continued with the admissions of Louisiana and Arkansas, into the Union, 1865. For the next few years regular troops of the United States held the territory of most of the States that had seceded, pending agreements by them to repeal the Ordinances of Secession, to repudiate public debts incurred to assist the Confederacy, and to abolish slavery by their own legislation. The freedmen were protected in their citizenship by the Civil Rights Act, and the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Amendments were added to the Constitution, as was also the Fifteenth Amendment several years later, 1870. Meantime the ex-Confederate States were gradually returning into the Union.

All these Acts and Amendments taken together constituted the Republican policy of reconstruction, meant wisely or unwisely to enforce, in the Southern States, the lessons of the War. These lessons were two: that no State can secede from the Union; and that the Negro is properly a citizen, not a chattel slave.

As a military fact the Confederate States had failed to maintain their secession. Their people, after the War, though defeated, endeavored by legislation, to force the Negroes back into a dependence and a servitude equivalent to slavery. Hence, one problem of reconstruction was

political, — a matter of government. But the fundamental fact of slavery had been that it was both a social institution that made the whites masters and relieved them from manual work, and an economic institution that enabled the successful masters to live in luxury upon the forced labor of others. It was this fundamental fact of slavery that so directly influenced the mind of Abraham Lincoln, as seen in the second inaugural address, "Yet, if God wills that this . . . mighty scourge of war . . . continue until all the wealth piled by the bondman's two hundred and fifty years of unrequited toil shall be sunk, and until every drop of blood drawn with the lash shall be paid by another drawn with the sword, as was said three thousand years ago so still it must be said, 'The judgments of the Lord are true and righteous altogether.'"

§ 24. What the War and Reconstruction Accomplished.

The Emancipation Proclamation began a far greater work than the freeing of the Negroes. It broke up a social system, and revolutionized the mode of life of twelve million people in fifteen slave-holding States. It undid the work of two and a half centuries.

Slavery and servitude for life or for a term of years were common in early days in America. At first there were far more white than black bondservants. But the white slaves and bondmen ran away from the masters or served out their terms. Moreover, in early days slavery and servitude were not always inherited. In those days the children of bondmen were often free. Until the invention of the cotton gin slavery was steadily dying out. There was little of it in the North in 1800.

But by 1820 it became apparent that the forced labor of black men was profitable in cotton fields as well as in rice swamps. In 1808 the foreign trade in slaves had been prohibited. Then there grew up a domestic slave trade scarcely less cruel, though indeed less fatal to life.

Virginia became a great market from which Negroes were sold to the lower South. In the single year, 1836, Virginia received $24,000,000 for slaves. At $600 each on the average, this represented a sale of 40,000 men and women. In the decade 1831–1840, 375,000 white people left Virginia to go into the free States, for they "had found by sad experience that a country of slaves was not a country for them," as their representatives publicly said. To this condition had the mother-State of Presidents sunk but a generation after Washington's death. The condition of Kentucky and Missouri was not much better.

In 1850 there were 350,000 slaveholders in the South, and some 3,000,000 slaves. Since many slaveholders were heads of families, it is estimated that 1,500,000 whites, out of 6,000,000 whites in all, held all the slaves, an average of nine slaves to each slave-holding family. Yet 1,600 slave-holding families held 300,000 slaves, and 40,000 families owned over half of all the slaves. Great plantations were being worked by hundreds of slaves under overseers, and the plantations were ever growing greater. Behind the great planters were the cotton, tobacco, and rice merchants who handled the products, and the bankers, who loaned money to market the crops. Many of the merchants and bankers were Baltimore and New York business men. There was a great deal of Northern capital in the South. Dependent upon the planters and merchants

were the professional people, — the ministers, physicians, and lawyers, — and the tradespeople. Slavery had built upon a complicated social structure. Anti-slavery meant far more than freeing the slaves. It meant leaving the planters their land and taking away their unpaid laborers; it meant ruin to the creditors of the planters; it meant social revolution.

The Southern slavery that emancipation destroyed and reconstruction prevented from returning, was a very different slavery from the house- and farm-slavery typical of earlier days, but still remaining here and there; that domestic slavery was often an altogether decent relation, creditable to the master and not hurtful to the slave. Great planters allowed their overseers to treat their slaves with dreadful cruelty; but the Southerners generally never approved such inhumanity, regarding it with sorrow, as we now regard the worst features of the wage-system as seen in huge factories and mills. The War destroyed the slave-system, but many miseries followed in the readjustment of the social relations of the whites and blacks.

The Lowndes Mansion, Charleston.
A famous and typical Southern City Home.

The ruin of the slave-aristocracy by the War, the death or disablement in battle of many of the leaders, the loss of the social power of the other leaders because of the overwhelming defeat, the dislocation of the social relations

between the slaveholding and the poor whites and the Negroes, and the catastrophes in every line of agriculture and commerce, had left the South completely disorganized, and without the men to effect a re-organization. This was the opportunity of the "carpet-baggers" in politics.

§ 25. The Compromises and the Reconstruction Acts.

The Reconstruction Acts undid the work of the Compromises in the period when the South was supreme in the National Government, controlling Congress and naming

Alton, Illinois, 1850.
Here Lincoln and Douglas met in 1858 in their seventh and last debate.

the Presidents. The first great Act that dealt with slavery was the Northwest Ordinance, 1787, establishing freedom beyond the Ohio. The next was the Missouri Compromise, dealing with the lands farther West, establishing freedom north of 36° 30′, except in Missouri. Then came the Compromise of 1850, by which the Pacific Coast was made free-labor, but the Territories were left in doubt; while by the Fugitive Slave Act all the North was turned into a police

guard for Southern property in men. Then came the Kansas-Nebraska Act, 1854, not a Compromise even in name, but substantially an establishment of the slaveholder's right to hold slaves even in the free region of the Missouri Compromise.

Next came the Dred Scott decision, 1857, declaring that the Missouri Compromise was unconstitutional, and that residence in a free State could not make a Negro slave a citizen. Then occurred, too, the great Lincoln-Douglas debates, almost as important as any Act of Congress, for they greatly influenced public opinion, which makes and unmakes Congresses. In these debates Lincoln declared that the South was ready for the next and last step, to secure the right of a slaveholder to keep his slaves even in free States; that is, to spread slavery into Maine and into California at the wish of any slaveholder. This was indeed the logical outcome of the Fugitive Slave Acts. It was from this that the great War saved us.

It may be well to notice here how unwise were those who counseled Lincoln to say to the Confederate States, "Wayward sisters, depart in peace." As Patrick Henry had said a century before, "Gentlemen cry, 'Peace, peace,' when there is no peace." There was no great mountain barrier between the slave South and the free North. In no age of the world, least of all in an age of steam and steel, of type and gunpowder, of electricity and enlightenment, would a mere surveyor's line, or even a river, effectively hold apart civilizations so antagonistic. John Brown raids, Lovejoy murders, Burns captures, Garrison abolition periodicals, and a thousand "underground railroads" would have made this Continent a furious bedlam. And in the

sum total the bloodshed and the ruin would have been far worse than even the immense and frightful operations of the tragedy of the War of Secession, by which human liberty was redeemed at awful price.

It is not for us who live in the light of the twentieth century to condemn our ancestors, South or North, for their course during the unfortunate years from 1820 to 1860, when slavery was growing so steadily. In its origin, slavery was an American, not a Southern, institution. Most of the unholy profits of the African slave-trade before 1808 were reaped by New England and New York, rather than by Virginia and South Carolina. Climate and invention, not desire, fastened slavery upon the South, and climate, not conscience, released the North from its thralls that bound the white master as surely as the black slave.

The later history of the South has demonstrated the economic as well as the ethical superiority of the capital-and-labor system over the master-and-slave system. Southern wealth is now both agricultural and industrial. The general intelligence and morality of both races have improved in the forty years since 1865.

§ 24. The First Transcontinental Railroad was Completed.

In 1869 there was completed the first railroad uniting the Atlantic sea-coast with the Pacific. Its construction was made possible by large grants from Congress, both of lands and bonds. The railroad was built in two sections beginning at Omaha and San Francisco. It had been begun as a war-measure, in 1862, to hold the Pacific States in the Union. Its completion was an engineering triumph, ranking with the Atlantic Cable successfully laid in 1866, and was then and is yet of great political importance, for with

other transcontinental lines it literally "ties" the Pacific Coast with the Mississippi Valley across the wide and high Rocky Mountains. The Pacific Railroad made Bennett, the engineer, and Huntington, Stanford, Crocker, and Mackaye,

Completion of the Pacific Railroad, 1869, near Great Salt Lake, Utah. Via this line, which crosses nine different mountain ranges, it is 3,400 miles from New York to San Francisco.

the business men, almost as famous as Cyrus W. Field, the heroic financier of the great Cable.

In politics, because of their extreme importance in transportation, — even the Mississippi is of scarcely more importance, — these railroad corporations became the great controlling influence in the Pacific and Rocky Mountain States.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. What was the ability of Abraham Lincoln as a politician?
2. What was his character?
3. Discuss Lincoln's understanding of the North and of the South.

4. What was the degree of his success?

5. Discuss the rallying of the North to the Union cause.

6. What was the course of the border slave States?

7. Compare the strength of the North and of the South in numbers of men.

8. Compare the financial resources of the United States and of the Confederate States.

9. Discuss the sacrifices of the South in the War.

10. Give an account of the "Trent Affair."

11. Explain the relation of the battle at the Antietam creek to the Emancipation Proclamation.

12. What was the attitude of Great Britain to the United States?

13. In what way did Great Britain help the Confederate States?

14. Were the people of the North unanimous for the war? Explain the opposition.

15. What was the effect of Lincoln's re-election upon the enlistments in Union armies?

16. Give an account of great events in April, 1865.

17. In what condition was the country when Johnson became President?

18. Discuss Johnson's record, character, and ability.

19. What was the purpose of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution?

20. Who were the "Carpet-Baggers"?

21. Discuss the Reconstruction policy.

22. What was the question at issue in the matter of Johnson's impeachment?

23. What was the end of the Empire of Maximilian in Mexico?

24. What ex-Confederate States were not yet in the Union in 1868?

25. What was the purpose of the Ku-Klux Klan secret societies?

26. When was the first successful Atlantic Cable laid?

27. Trace in order the Reconstruction Acts and Amendments.

28. Discuss the development of slavery.

29. Trace in order the Compromises regarding slavery.

30. Discuss the completion of the first transcontinental railroad.

SUGGESTED READINGS.

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North; Life in the South during the War; Life in the Union Army; Maximilian's Empire; Emancipation; Lee's Surrender; the South at the End of the War; Reconstruction; the Ku-Klux Klan; Presidential Elections; Pacific Railroad; etc., etc.

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Curtis's *The True Abraham Lincoln.*

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ADDITIONAL TOPICS FOR INQUIRY OR DISCUSSION.

1. Comparison of Washington and Lincoln.

2. The Attack on Fort Sumter and its Effect upon Northern Sentiment: The Southern Justification of the Attack.

3. Jefferson Davis, President of the Confederate States.

4. Southern Leaders: Benjamin, Stevens, Toombs.

5. The War Democrats.
6. Hugh McCulloch and the National Bank System.
7. Confederate Paper Money.
8. The Ruin of the South by the War.
9. The "Trent Affair" and Lincoln's Prompt Surrender.
10. The Members of Lincoln's Emancipation Cabinet; especially Stanton, Secretary of War.
11. Adams, the American Minister at the Court of St. James, Great Britain.
12. The Negroes as Faithful Servants of their Old Masters; their Reverence for Abraham Lincoln.
13. Czar Alexander I.
14. Draft Riots in New York City and Elsewhere.
15. The Great War Governors of the Union States: Andrews of Massachusetts, etc.; State Volunteer Regiments.
16. The *Alabama* and her History.
17. Beecher at Liverpool.
18. Lincoln and the Pardoning Power.
19. Comparison of the Early Lives of Lincoln and Johnson.
20. The Impeachment of President Johnson.
21. Pensions to Soldiers and to the Dependent Relatives of the Slain.
22. The Carpet-Baggers and Carpet-Bag Government.
23. The Empire of Maximilian and his Tragic and Undeserved Death.
24. The Purchase of Alaska.
25. Cyrus W. Field and the Laying of the Atlantic Cables; the Assistance given by Peter Cooper; the *Great Eastern*.
26. The Pacific Railroad.
27. Political Reasons for issuing the Emancipation Proclamation.
28. Comparison of the "Democracy" of Jefferson, Jackson, and Lincoln.
29. The Influence of Slavery upon Virginia.
30. The View of Slavery held by the Southern Mountain Whites.

IMPORTANT DATES.

1861–65. Abraham Lincoln is the sixteenth President.
1862. September. The preliminary Proclamation.
1863. The Emancipation Proclamation.
1865–69. Andrew Johnson is the seventeenth President.
1866. Laying of the successful Atlantic Cable.
1869. Completion of the first Transcontinental Railroad.

CHAPTER VI.

THE GROWTH OF HARMONY AND OF PROSPERITY.

ULYSSES S. GRANT, 1869–1877.

§ 1 The Geneva Tribunal Awarded Damages to the United States in the Matter of the Alabama Claims.

DURING the Civil War there had been various disputes with Great Britain. These were not yet settled in 1869. The chief dispute was regarding compensation for the destruction of American vessels by Confederate cruisers built and fitted out in British ports. The Alabama Claims were referred to a Court of Arbitration consisting of one delegate each from the United States, Great Britain, Italy, Switzerland, and Brazil. The Court in the Geneva Award held that the British Government had not shown due diligence in preventing the *Alabama* and other Confederate cruisers from being fitted out, and awarded the United States fifteen and a half million dollars. This seems like a great sum, but it by no means represented the total damage done.

Ulysses S. Grant.
Born, 1822; died, 1885.
Lieutenant Mexican War:
Lieutenant General: President.

§ 2. There was Dissatisfaction with the Government.

Unfortunately, many government officials, both municipal and national, in the years since the war, had become extremely corrupt. There were scandals in the Post Office

Department and elsewhere. What was known as the "Tweed Ring" flourished in New York. At the close of Grant's first Administration there was much dissatisfaction among the people over this corruption in government.

Grant's opponent was Horace Greeley, the great editor of "The New York Tribune," who had not had any previous experience in government. Unfortunately for himself, and for the principles that he represented, people generally regarded him as brilliant and philanthropic, but incompetent.

Grant had given evidence that, as the wiser people had feared four years before, he was very deficient in the knowledge of men's characters that is essential to the Chief Executive of this great nation. Designing politicians were deceiving him successfully. However, his war-record, and his well-deserved reputation for personal integrity, gave him a half-million majority of votes at the polls, and a great majority in the Electoral College.

§ 3. The Government Planned to Resume Specie Payments.

During the War of Secession the National Government had stopped paying its debts in gold and silver, and had used irredeemable paper money instead. Such money has no real value. Its issue had seemed necessary during the War. In 1875 Congress passed, and the President approved, a law to the effect that, beginning January 1, 1879, the Government would pay all its obligations in coin. This greatly improved the national credit.

§ 4. The Centennial Exposition was Held in 1876.

In Grant's second term there was held a splendid World's Exposition at Philadelphia to celebrate the hundredth anniversary of the Declaration of Independence.

§ 5. The Election of 1876 Tested the Good Judgment and the Peacefulness of the American People.

The election of 1876 was as important a test of the sound judgment and the self-restraint of the American people as any that has ever taken place. The Republicans had nominated Hayes, an ex-Governor of Ohio, and a Union General, and the Democrats, Tilden, an ex-Governor of New York. The latter was an eminent lawyer and statesman, who had successfully attacked the corrupt "Tweed Ring" in New York. In the popular vote he had a quarter of a million plurality over Hayes.

The election in the Electoral College finally turned on the votes of three Southern States, — Louisiana, Florida, and South Carolina, — and of one Northern State, — Oregon. From the Southern States two sets of certificates had been returned for the Electors. If all the Electoral votes of the four States in dispute should be counted for the Republican candidate, he would be elected by a majority of one, otherwise the Democratic candidate would be successful. The question was as to who should do the counting; and it was finally agreed to appoint an Electoral Commission, to consist of five Senators, five Representatives, and five Justices of the United States Supreme Court. Unfortunately, the Commission, which consisted of eight Republicans and seven Democrats, voted eight to seven on every issue.

The actual merits of the dispute are very difficult to discern, but at this distance from the event it seems probable that Tilden ought to have received a majority of the Electoral votes. On the other hand, it is quite certain that if the Negroes of the South had been allowed

to vote freely, the Republican vote in the Southern States would have been much heavier. It also seems no longer questionable that both sides were guilty of bribery of voters. The people received the decision calmly. The result in general showed how thoroughly trained this nation is in self-control. In some other countries the disappointment on the one side, and the elation over victory on the other, would almost certainly have resulted in civil war.

Rutherford Birchard Hayes.
Born, 1822; died, 1893.
General: Governor of Ohio:
President.

Samuel Jones Tilden.
Born, 1814; died, 1886.
Governor of New York:
Jurist.

Rutherford B. Hayes, 1877–1881.

§ 6. Hayes was without Effective Support in Congress.

New issues were now coming before the American people. It became apparent that the civil service ought to be reformed, the tariff revised, and specie payments resumed by the United States Treasury. President Hayes was at a great disadvantage, since the House of Representatives

was largely Democratic, and after 1878 even the Senate was Democratic. The period of the Administration was marked generally by debate rather than by decisive action.

§ 7. Federal Troops were Withdrawn from the Southern States.

Hayes had something of the political tact of Lincoln, and sympathized with his views upon Southern questions. One of his first acts was to withdraw Federal troops from South Carolina and elsewhere, on the ground that the people intended to keep the peace and to obey the National as well as the State laws, and needed no force to compel them. This act was directly counter to the policy of reconstruction by military force and marked its end. It led to better feeling between North and South, and assisted the Southern whites in regaining control of government.

§ 8. The Struggle Began between Capital and Labor.

There had been in 1873 a financial panic, followed by a long period of business depression. In 1877 there occurred a series of strikes and riots in various parts of the country, especially in connection with the railroads. The cause was reduction of wages. At Pittsburg several million dollars' worth of property was destroyed. The riotous wage-earners were discontented with their lot in life, and tried to better their condition by violence. To suppress these riots and to break up the mobs, both State militia and Federal troops were required. Such was the beginning of violence over the question of capital and labor that is constantly becoming more and more important, and corresponds now in American history with the slavery question as it stood in the eighteenth century. No man can foresee to what the struggle may lead in the twentieth century.

§ 9. Coin Took the Place of Paper Money in Payment of National Debts.

The successful resumption of specie payments in 1879 was the final great achievement of Hayes's Administration. It restored our credit as a debt-paying people. Our "greenbacks," made during the War "legal tender" for debts, at once went to par with coin. Gold no longer commanded a premium, and business went on more smoothly.

James A. Garfield, 1881.

§ 10. Garfield Fell a Victim to Office-Seekers.

In 1880 James A. Garfield of Ohio had been elected President, in opposition to Winfield Scott Hancock of Pennsylvania. Garfield was a man of great experience in public affairs, and had won an excellent education by his own efforts. He had been a general in the Union army during the War. Hancock had made a splendid record as a general in the War. Garfield's majority, though large in the Electoral College, in the popular vote was only a few thousand.

James Abram Garfield.
Born, 1831; killed, 1881.
President: General: Senator-elect from Ohio.

July 2, 1881, Garfield was shot by a political "crank" whose disturbed mental condition was largely the result of the pernicious office-seeking system of our government and of bitter political partisanship. He died of the wound September 19, after a brave fight for life. This murder resulted in a popular agitation that greatly promoted civil service reform.

Chester A. Arthur, 1881–1885.

§ 11. Arthur Made a Successful President.

Arthur, who had been a Republican politician in New York State up to his election as Vice-President, gave the country one of the quietest and most successful Administrations in its history; but he was not considered for the Presidency in 1884. His failure to secure even the Republican nomination, as Hayes had failed to secure it in 1880, shows one of the weak features of our party system, its unpatriotic self-seeking factionalism. The important political events of his Administration were a civil service reform law, making merit the qualification for office, a lower tariff on imports, and the total exclusion of the Chinese.

Chester Alan Arthur.
Born, 1830; died, 1886.
President.

Grover Cleveland, 1885–1889.

§ 12. The New President was Progressive.

In the election of 1885 James G. Blaine of Maine, a great orator and a brilliant political leader, was the Republican candidate against Grover Cleveland, the efficient Governor of New York State, the Democratic candidate. Blaine represented traditional Republicanism, with its high tariffs for the protection of American manufactures and its support of the interests of the industrial classes.

The election was extremely close; a change of less than

six hundred votes in New York State alone would have elected Blaine. As it was, Cleveland, representing a new movement in American politics, looking to economy, to lower tariffs, and less government-interference in business affairs, was successful. An Act was passed fixing the Presidential succession as follows: viz., Vice-President, Secretary of State, Secretary of the Treasury, Secretary of War, Attorney-General, Secretary of the Navy, Postmaster-General, and Secretary of the Interior.

Grover Cleveland.
Born, 1837.
President: Governor of New York.

The Interstate Commerce Commission was established, looking to regulation of the railroads, which were unfairly charging various freight rates for the same distances. It was partly by means of such discrimination between competitors that the immense business of the Standard Oil Company was being built up.

The first Administration of Grover Cleveland resulted in an improved civil service in our government, and in a slight revision of the tariff. He made a unique record as President by vetoing one-eighth of all the bills passed by Congress, objecting consistently to private pension legislation. He also advocated a much lower tariff, in the direction of free trade. The President, with his maxim "Public office is a public trust," was not re-elected in 1888, owing to unpopularity within his own party, for whose politicians he was altogether too progressive.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. What was the Geneva Award?
2. Compare Greeley and Grant as candidates for the Presidency.
3. Discuss "specie payment."
4. Discuss the Hayes-Tilden controversy.
5. What action did Hayes take with reference to the South?
6. Discuss the Pittsburg riots.
7. What was the effect of Garfield's death upon civil service reform?
8. What were the important features of Arthur's Administration?
9. Discuss the Cleveland-Blaine campaign.
10. What were important features of Cleveland's Administration?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Contemporaries.* Vol. IV., pp. 518-523, 529-538, 542-546, 550-556.
Andrew's *Modern United States History.* (*Last Quarter Century*).
Blaine's *Twenty Years of Congress.*
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ADDITIONAL TOPICS FOR INVESTIGATION.

1. Force Bills (to compel the Southern States to let Negroes vote, etc.).
2. Credit Mobilier (plans to finance the building of Western Railroads).
3. Panic of 1873.
4. Sioux War, Sitting Bull, Death of General Custer, June 25, 1876.
5. The Farmer's Alliance.
6. The Demonetization of Silver, 1873.
7. "Mugwumps," (Independent Republicans opposed to Blaine).
8. Bering Sea Controversies relating to Seal Fisheries, etc.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1869-1873. Grant, the eighteenth President.
1873-1881. Hayes, the nineteenth President.
1881. Garfield, the twentieth President.
1881-1885. Arthur, the twenty-first President.
1885-1889. Cleveland, the twenty-second President.

CHAPTER VII.

COMMERCIAL CHANGES AND TERRITORIAL EXPANSION.

BENJAMIN HARRISON, 1889–1893.

§ 1. Congress Tried to Maintain a High Price for Silver by Government Purchases.

CLEVELAND'S successor, Benjamin Harrison of Indiana, grandson of William Henry Harrison, President in 1841, was an admirable President, but his Administration was unsuccessful. In 1873 silver had been demonetized; that is, it was no longer to be taken for gold at a fixed rate of value. This tended to reduce its value in gold. Further, there had been discovered immense deposits of silver ore, and new and cheaper processes for reducing the ore and getting out the pure metal had been invented. This made silver still cheaper. To offset this lowering of the value of silver, our Government for some years had been buying silver bullion. In 1890 Congress voted to buy every month four and a half million ounces of bullion, and to issue silver certificates for it.

Benjamin Harrison.
Born, 1833; died, 1901.
General: U.S. Senator: President: Jurist.

§ 2. The Protective Tariff was Made Still Higher.

In 1890 Congress passed the McKinley Tariff Act, which raised the duties on imported goods much higher than they

had been before. This was in the interest of the manufacturers and of the wage-earners who were engaged in the great and growing industries of the country. Its result was to raise the prices of manufactured goods.

Grover Cleveland, 1893–1897.

§ 3. Hard Times Made the President Unpopular.

In the election of 1892 Harrison was opposed by ex-President Cleveland, again the candidate of the Democratic party, and by James B. Weaver, ex-Governor of Iowa, who represented a new party, the Populist. This new party advocated government ownership of the railroads and telegraph lines, a national tax on incomes, and the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of sixteen ounces of silver to one ounce of gold, and denounced the old parties as corrupt political machines.

In the election, Cleveland, advocating lower tariffs, was successful. His second term was even less popular than his first. In 1893 a commercial panic set in, caused largely by the Government's hoarding of silver. An unsuccessful tariff bill lowering and modifying all duties was passed in 1894. An income tax of 2 per cent upon the excess of incomes over $4,000 was a feature of this Wilson Tariff Act, but was pronounced unconstitutional by the United Supreme Court. Cleveland displayed greater zeal for the national welfare than was satisfactory to his party, and failed to have its support at the close of his term. His Administration, unfortunately, had to borrow immense sums to carry on the affairs of the Government for want of an adequate income and because of drains upon the Treasury due to forced purchases of silver.

§ 4. The Columbian Exposition was Held at Chicago, 1893, in a Period of Great Commercial Distress.

In 1893 our country celebrated the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Columbus, holding a great World's Fair at Chicago. This Exposition was an artistic triumph, and showed the marvelous progress of our country and of the world.

While it was being held, our country was at the beginning of perhaps the worst and certainly the most extensive "panic" and period of business depression in its history. This was caused by the derangement of our monetary affairs from the Government's forced purchases of silver. "Hard times" lasted for several years.

Court of Honor, Columbian Exposition, Chicago, 1893.

§ 5. Foreign Affairs were Managed Vigorously.

In 1893 Cleveland greatly offended popular sentiment in this country by refusing to accept the proffered annexation of Hawaii. But in 1895 he aroused wild enthusiasm by

vigorously insisting upon Great Britain's submitting her claims to land in South America to arbitration. In a message emphasizing the Monroe Doctrine he asserted that the dispute of Great Britain with Venezuela was a matter for the judgment of the world, not for trial at arms. Cleveland's defiance of Great Britain, warning her from any attempt by force of arms to settle the dispute about territory upon the American continents astonished Europe and delighted all America.

§ 6. The High Protective Tariff Principle and a "Sound Money" System were Indorsed at the Polls.

The campaign of 1896 was remarkable. The Democratic Convention at Chicago adopted a very radical platform and nominated William J. Bryan of Nebraska for the Presidency. The Populists indorsed this nomination. Bryan advocated the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1, and many governmental changes, and made the greatest oratorical campaign in the history of the country. The Republican candidate was William McKinley of Ohio, an advocate of a high protective tariff and of "sound money," who was supported by the substantial business interests of the country.

The sudden prominence of Bryan as the leader of a great century-old party was the result of a single brilliant speech in the Convention. This speech attacked gold monometallism as the basis of our national currency upon the ground that it limits the money in circulation and injures the wage-earning classes. "Bryanism" split the Democratic party into two divisions, the larger of which supported Bryan, while the smaller division of "gold-Democrats" nominated another candidate. This split in the Democratic party resulted in the election of McKinley.

The Dewey Arch, New York City, to celebrate the victory at Manila.

William McKinley, 1897–1901.

§ 7. A New Tariff Law was Adopted.

The first act of President McKinley was to call Congress together in special session to repeal the unwise tariff of 1894, and to adopt the Dingley Tariff Act, increasing and adjusting all duties on imported goods. This was immediately beneficial to the business of the country.

William McKinley.
Born, 1843; assassinated 190..
President: Governor of Ohio.

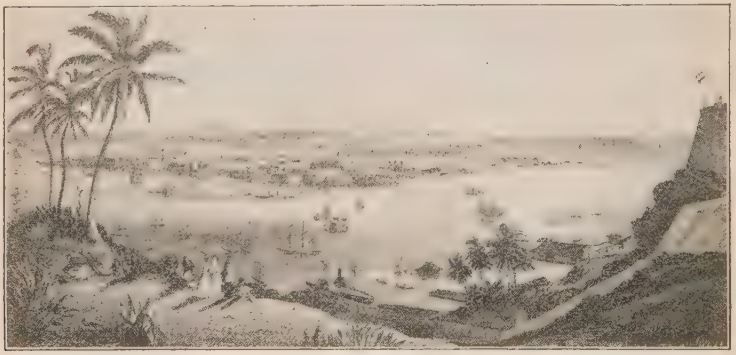
§ 8. We Gained Islands in the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.

In 1898, under the compulsion of Spanish cruelties in Cuba and of American public sentiment, war was declared against Spain. As the cry went up in 1836 and 1846, "Remember the Alamo," so in 1898 a cry went up, "Remember the Maine," for in February a war-cruiser of ours in Havana harbor was blown up with a loss of two hundred sixty-six men. In the following month Congress appropriated $50,000,000 for war purposes, and in April war was formally declared. On sea and land, our forces were so amazingly successful, that the fighting was over within a few months, and our country was in possession of Porto Rico, Cuba, and the Philippines.

The entire expense of the War of 1898 was $200,000,000. By two treaties Spain ceded to us Porto Rico, and at a price to us of $20,000,000 the Philippine Islands.

Arrangements were also made for the independence of Cuba under the protectorate of the United States.

Thus ended the dominion of Spain in the New World, founded by Columbus in 1492, extended by Cortez, Pizarro, and Menendez in the following hundred years, and greatly



Havana Harbor, Cuba.

reduced in the period of the Napoleonic Wars, when all South America went free.

§ 9. We Became Friendly with Great Britain.

A pleasant feature of the Spanish-American War was that British sentiment supported our course. This led to a great change in American public opinion, which partly because of the Revolutionary War but more because of the British support of the slavery cause in the War of Secession, had always been unfriendly to Great Britain as was made plain at the time of Cleveland's Venezuela message.

Upon the Continent of Europe there was a good deal of criticism of our attack upon Spain, which our voluntary surrender of Cuba and our generous payment for the Philippines did much to correct.

Honolulu, Hawaii.

§ 10. The Hawaii Islands Became American Territory.

In 1898 we annexed the Hawaii Islands, at the request of their people. Since then, by Act of Congress, the Islands have been organized as a Territory of the United States.

§ 11. An Exciting Oratorical Campaign Took Place in 1900.

In 1900 McKinley was re-elected in a campaign in which he was again opposed by William J. Bryan of Nebraska, Democrat and Populist, who advocated the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 with gold, and opposed "imperialism," as the policy of holding colonial possessions was called. Bryan again proved himself a wonderful campaigner in the number and persuasiveness of his speeches, winning favor upon the platform scarcely less remarkable than had followed Clay and Blaine in their greatest days. Governor Roosevelt of New York, Republican candidate for Vice-President, also made many notable speeches.

§ 12. America Became an International Leader.

Meantime there arose in China an insurrection of the people against foreigners. To protect their citizens America, Great Britain, Germany, France, and Japan sent military and naval forces. Peking, the Capital of China, was taken. In the final settlement American diplomacy was recognized as far more successful than that of any other nation. These troubles in the far East lasted throughout the year 1900.

§ 13. The President Was Assassinated at the Pan-American Exposition, Buffalo, September, 1901.

In 1901 there was organized, in the interest of mutual sympathy, an exposition of the products of all nations upon the two American continents. This was to carry out the general plans of the Pan-American Congress held in Washington in 1889 under the leadership of James G. Blaine, who was Secretary of State in Harrison's Administration.

This Fair was proving successful, when the country was shocked by the assassination upon its grounds of President McKinley, when making an official visit. The assassin was a foreign-born citizen, not trained in our public schools, and crazed with the idea that all governments injure the poor.

Of American Presidents, there have died in office two from overwork, — Harrison and Taylor; and three by the hands of murderers, — Lincoln, Garfield, and McKinley. Of the three murdered, each was a man of the people, who had won his own education, whose character was admirable, and whose manners were democratic and extremely cordial to all his fellow-citizens. It is noteworthy also that the assassin of each was either a "crank" or a lunatic. Such are the labors and the dangers of the highest office in our Nation.

Theodore Roosevelt, 1901–

§ 14. The New President is a Scholar, Politician, and Soldier.

McKinley's successor was his Vice-President, Theodore Roosevelt, a hero of the Spanish War, and Governor of New York at the time of his election. He was the first man to come to the Presidency with fame in literature, for he was the author of many books of history, criticism, and adventure. His preparation in scholarship was extensive and thorough like that of the early Virginia and Massachusetts Presidents. Like them, too, he had benefited by much previous experience in governmental affairs.

Theodore Roosevelt.
Born, 1858.
President: Governor of New York: Soldier: Historian.

§ 15. The Philippine Islands Accepted American Civilization.

After the Americans took possession of the Philippine Islands, the insurrection and fighting that had been raging there against Spanish control, turned against us. At first our control was violently resented. Warfare continued until the fall of 1902, when it ceased. Meantime our Government had established peace in the Islands, had encouraged trade and industry, and had placed thousands of American school-teachers in the Philippine cities, towns, villages, and hamlets. The administration of Governor William H. Taft met with the constant support of the best people in the Islands, — American, Spanish, and Filipino.

§ 16. Cuba Became an Independent Republic.

In 1902, under the protection of the American Government, Cuba became an independent nation, and set up a republican form of government.

§ 17. A Great Industrial War was Settled by the President's Commission.

The great struggle between capital and labor, which began with railroad riots in 1877, had continued more or less constantly until 1902. There had been strikes, "boycotts," lockouts, picketings, and "blacklistings." On the one side the capitalists were constantly organizing greater and greater corporations, and were trying to increase profits and to secure larger dividends. On the other side, the laborers, especially the skilled workers, were organizing trade unions and amalgamations of unions, and were trying to increase wages and to reduce the hours of labor.

In 1902 the mine-workers of Pennsylvania struck for higher wages and fewer hours of work. The mine-owners would not yield. Coal was no longer produced. Finally, both sides agreed to arbitration by a commission to be appointed by the President. In 1903 this Commission made its report, which, on the whole, was favorable to the wage-earners. This mode of settling an industrial war was new in American history. Hitherto, the National Government had never taken part in such struggles further than to send Federal troops when necessary in order to quell rioting.

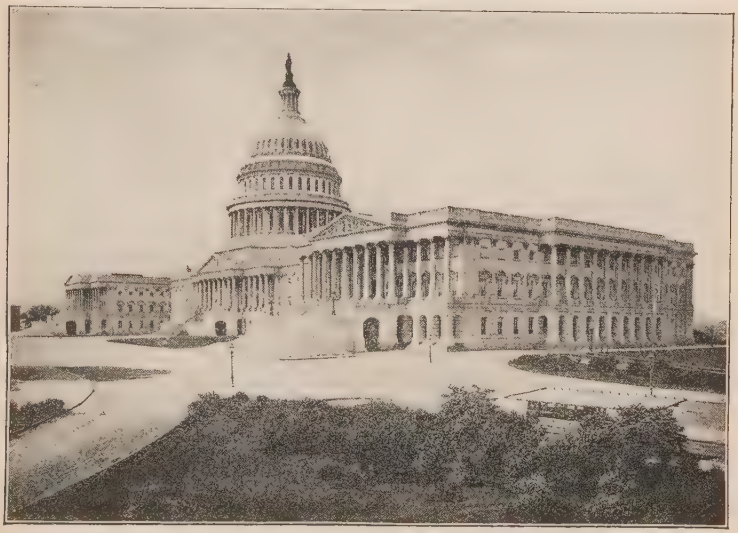
§ 18. A Department of Commerce was Created.

The business development of the country was reflected in the creation, in 1903, of a Department of Commerce, with a Secretary as its head to represent it in the Cabinet of the President. There had been added, in 1889, in

Harrison's Administration a Department of Agriculture. There are now nine Departments, — State, War, Interior, Navy, Post Office, Attorney-General, Treasury, Agriculture, and Commerce.

§ 19. Discussions over an Isthmian Canal and Other Economic Matters.

An important discussion of the present Administration has related to the questions of the building of a canal across



The Capitol of the United States at Washington.

the Isthmus of Panama or through Nicaragua. In order to build this canal it became necessary to secure the abrogation of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty of 1854, between Great Britain and the United States, by which it was agreed that the two nations should jointly control any Isthmian Canal. Treaty negotiations were entered into by our Government

with the United States of Colombia which then included the Republic of Panama at the Isthmus of Panama. An arrangement has now been reached permitting our nation to finish there the great canal begun by the French engineer, De Lesseps.

In the summer and fall of 1902 the attention of the public was taken up with discussions over the "trusts." In 1897 there had set in an amazing tide of business. Wealth grew fast, and became concentrated within the control of a comparatively few people who organized syndicates and "trusts." These latter are great corporations which have secured monopolies of the necessaries of life such as coal, sugar, meat, and oil. It was felt that their enormous wealth and their influence on American government in State and Nation prevents that equality of citizens before the law to which the people of the United States are dedicated.

§ 20. A Surprising Defect of Our Civilization.

In the summer of 1903 there occurred in various parts of our country, East and West, North and South, an unusual number of social disturbances of the most reprehensible sort, in which criminals and accused persons were killed by mobs without legal trial. These lynchings, however, declined in number later in the year. They showed that there is still much bitter feeling against the black race.

The country was at the same time much agitated over questions of Negro education and of Negro suffrage. Many Southern States within recent years have by property, education, and birth qualifications, disfranchised many Negroes. In Virginia, by the new State Constitution, four-fifths of the Negroes became ineligible to vote. All these social

disturbances showed the needs of more popular enlightenment and of higher personal character in our citizenship.

In this same period Booker T. Washington of Alabama and other Negro leaders did great service in the cause of the industrial education of the race.

§ 21. The Decline of Commercial and Industrial Prosperity.

In the history of our country there have been many vicissitudes of "good" and of "hard times." There were "hard times" after 1837, 1854, 1873, 1893. Panics appear periodically, and are caused by business men's overconfidence in pushing new enterprises. They borrow money at interest, and when the loans are due, must pay more than they borrow. So many of them do this that, sooner or later, the growing wealth of the country does not grow fast enough to pay the debts and the interest. Failures begin, and cause other failures.

In the fall of 1893 a period of "hard times" set in. Railroads discharged some of their employes. Great corporations became insolvent and passed into the hands of receivers. The demand for laborers decreased and wages fell. These troubles affected politics and renewed the agitation of the questions of capital and labor, of the corporations and of the trades unions.

§ 22. The Settlement of the Alaska-Canada Boundary Question.

In 1903 Secretary of State John Hay, who had been Lincoln's private secretary, won another success in international diplomacy. The true boundary between the United States and Canada, north and south, along the Pacific Coast, had never been satisfactorily determined. By an international tribunal of American, Canadian, and British commissioners, the claims of the United States were in the main

upheld. The decision fixed the boundary along the line of mountain tops back of the sea-coast, depriving Canada of several desirable Pacific harbors. This decision was based upon early treaties between Russia and Great Britain.

The Government also recognized the independence of the State of Panama that seceded from Colombia, and undertook vigorously the great work of building the Panama canal. The year 1904 was one of considerable commercial depression and was marked by the failure of several great business enterprises to realize the hopes of those who had invested heavily in them.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. Discuss Government purchases of silver.
2. What was the McKinley Tariff Act of 1890?
3. What were some of the principles of the Populist party in 1892?
4. Compare Cleveland's two Administrations.
5. Discuss the Wilson Tariff Act.
6. Discuss the McKinley-Bryan campaign of 1896.
7. What was the effect of the Dingley Tariff Act of 1897?
8. Discuss the results of the War of 1898.
9. What is the present relation of the Hawaiian Islands to our nation?
10. Give an account of American civilization in the Philippines.
11. What is the present relation of Cuba to this nation?
12. Discuss the Coal Strike of 1902.
13. Discuss the questions of Negro education and Negro suffrage.

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Contemporaries*, Vol. IV., pp. 536–541, 561 *et seq.*
International Year Books, 1898, 1899, 1900, 1901, 1902, 1903.
Papers and Messages of the Presidents, Vols. X. and XI.
Andrews's *History of the United States in Our Own Times.*
Adams's and Trent's *History of the United States*, pp. 494–535.
Recent Magazines and Newspapers.

IMPORTANT DATES.

1889-1893. Harrison, the twenty-third President.
1893-1897. Cleveland is again President.
1897-1901. McKinley, the twenty-fourth President.
1901-1904. Roosevelt, the twenty-fifth President.

PART FIVE.

OUR NATION'S WARS.

CHAPTER I.

CAUSES AND HISTORY OF OUR FIRST WARS, 1799–1815.

§ 1. The Spirit of Liberty Caused a Revolution, from Whose Confusion Emerged the Great Soldier, Napoleon.

THE moving causes of our country's first two wars lay entirely outside of American history. In 1789–1793, there raged in France against the government a great and terrible insurrection of the people that is commonly known as the French Revolution. The ideas of some of its leaders were not unlike those of some of the leaders of the American Revolution of 1775–1783, and, indeed, of the English Revolution of 1688. They believed in equal rights and opportunities for all. But the French

Napoleon Bonaparte.
Emperor of the French. Born, 1768 died, 1821.
Soldier; Statesman; Jurist;
Who Sold to us Louisiana 1804, and caused
the "War of 1812."

Revolution was very different from the Revolutions in England and America. The oppression of the common people by the ruling classes in France was far worse than it had been in England in 1688 and in America in 1775, and far more blood was shed and many more wicked things were done in France than in America, while the English Revolution was comparatively peaceful. A million citizens were slain in France.

After this French Revolution, the soldier, Napoleon Bonaparte, an Italian from Corsica, made himself Emperor of the French, and was victorious in great wars in Western and Central Europe. He wished to subdue England also.

§ 2. We were Involved in the Napoleonic Wars.

To injure England by injuring English trade Napoleon tried to prevent English vessels from going into the commercial ports of Europe, and from making voyages upon the high seas. England, in reply, tried to hurt the trade of France. In the wars between the great combatants, England and France, one the greatest sea-power, and the other the greatest land-power, in Europe, all smaller nations became more or less involved. The United States, a neutral power, became involved because our merchants wished to trade with the nations of Europe, contrary to the orders of France and England. Yet our country did not wish to go actively into the wars to help either side.

The French–American War, 1799–1800.

§ 3. Our First War was on the Sea with France.

After the War of Independence, which was a successful rebellion rather than an international war, the first conflict

was with France. The cause was Napoleon's request for money and for other assistance in his wars against Great Britain. It was marked by two important events, the captures of the French frigates, *L'Insurgente* and *La Vengeance*, by the frigate *Constellation*, Thomas Truxton, commander, in February, 1799, and in February, 1800.

This was the same Truxton whose naval exploits in the War of Independence rivaled those of Paul Jones, and who in 1785 brought Benjamin Franklin home to America upon a long seven weeks' voyage. The aged statesman always said that it was Truxton's good company, and the good sea air together, that restored his worn-out body and weary mind to health and vigor, and enabled him to live long enough to see the new nation adopt its new Constitution. Truxton, like Jones and Franklin, was very friendly to France. But Napoleon was not France to them. These victories of Truxton convinced Napoleon that it was a mistake to ask America for loans: and led him in 1803 to sell Louisiana to strengthen our nation as a rival of England upon the seas.

§ 4. Next We Policed the Sea.

The next international conflicts are scarcely to be called wars: they were rather the efforts of America to police the seas in the interests of honest commerce. There survived in North Africa from the fine old days of the pirates, freebooters, and buccaneers, several cities that systematically practised piracy on the high seas. These cities belonged to the so-called Barbary States, of which Algiers, Morocco, and Tripoli were then the most important. Between 1785 and 1793, our government paid Algiers a million dollars

to ransom our citizens. For the right to trade in the Mediterranean, we agreed to, and did, pay tribute to these "Corsair States", more or less regularly for several years.

In 1800 we began to fight them. By 1806 we had them finally defeated. In 1814 the last treaty necessary to dispose of this question of piracy was made. Through these years such men as Decatur, Bainbridge, Barron, Preble,

An American Frigate in the Mediterranean.

Morris, Hull, Macdonough, Lawrence, Barry, Stewart, and Somers, won fight after fight upon the seas and in the harbors of the Barbary States, making their names immortal in the early story of the American navy. In these fights, the navy was trained for its brilliant success in the "War of 1812." When all the battles were won, the Pope of the Roman Catholic Church gave to the United States high praise as the greatest peace-maker of the world for accomplishing what no nation in Europe dared undertake.

The settlement of the piracy difficulties and of those with England at almost the same time, marked the end of the first period of American history as a nation, which is characterized by very great interest in international affairs. From 1814 to 1898 we were almost entirely absorbed in domestic matters, and our wars were at home.

British-American War. "War of 1812." (1812–1815.)

§ 5. Our Commerce Was Nearly Destroyed by England and France.

The "War of 1812" is peculiar among wars from several facts. Neither the United States nor Great Britain wished to fight. Nothing in the controversy was settled by the treaty of peace. Only a very small part of the resources of either nation was involved in the War which added greatly to the reputation of one country without lowering that of the other. Hoping to prevent hostilities, Great Britain at the last moment revoked her odious Orders in Council, but the revocation came too late, and war had been declared by this country some weeks before the news of the revocation reached us. Napoleon with his Decrees, and England with her Orders, had nearly destroyed our merchant marine.

In respect to the violation of the rights of neutrals and to the confiscation of ships, France was undoubtedly the worse offender. Napoleon had confiscated at one time $10,000,000 worth of American ships and goods, handsomely recouping what he called his "bad bargain" in the sale of Louisiana. If the United States had felt strong enough, we would have fought them both, for our commerce was as wheat ground between upper and nether

millstones. There was ample cause against either nation, but our case against England had the sentimental feature of the disgrace of allowing our seamen to be kidnapped from our merchant vessels and war-ships on the pretext that they were deserters from the British navy.

England had a defence, not ethical but practical. Her war against the Napoleonic empire and ideas was a war in defence of Anglo-Saxon civilization. It was a war to the death in which she needed more sailors.

§ 6. Though Not Born an American, a Man Can be Made an American.

Not infrequently, the impressed American seamen were foreigners by birth, and no European nation was willing to accept the idea of "naturalization" by another country. In earlier centuries, renouncing allegiance had been a crime amounting to treason.

"If Great Britain," exclaimed Clay in the House of Representatives, "desires a mark by which she can know her own subjects, let her give them an ear-mark. The colors that float from the masthead should be the credentials of our seamen." This eloquent saying amounted to a new principle of international law, that the right of one's country by adoption is superior to the right of the country of one's birth.

§ 7. The War Began on the Land with Disgrace to Our Arms.

War was declared June 18, 1812. The United States was unprepared for carrying on hostilities in systematic or vigorous fashion, and the generals placed in charge of our first operations against Canada were, unfortunately, either figure-heads left over from the Revolutionary War, or

politicians ignorant of the principles of warfare. General Hull opened hostilities with a brief and fruitless invasion of Canada from Detroit, and issued a grand proclamation to the inhabitants. He followed this up with a hasty retreat, which resulted in the surrender of Detroit with twenty-two hundred men to the British General Brock. This was the first of our mortifications, August 16, 1812.

At the battle of Queenstown, two months later, General Van Rensselaer's army of six thousand men was defeated, and lost nine hundred prisoners.

Then a certain General Alexander Smyth came to the front at Niagara, rallied the despondent troops, and issued a manifesto. "Come on, my heroes," he cried, "and when you attack the enemy's batteries let your rallying words be, 'The cannon lost at Detroit or death!'" The result was a foolish invasion of Canada, in which a few troops crossed the river, and then crossed back; after which exploit the volunteers were ordered to their homes, and the regulars into winter quarters.

§ 8. We Won Brilliant Victories on the Ocean.

In cheerful contrast with the story of the bad management of the land forces during the first year of the War, is the glorious record of the infant American navy. The Britannia that ruled the wave at this time received several severe shocks.

On August 13, 1812, the frigate *Essex*, under Captain Porter, captured the British sloop *Alert*, in a few minutes' fight, without losing a man. A week later the frigate *Constitution*, commanded by Captain Hull, began her brilliant career with the destruction of the British frigate *Guerrière*, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. The *Guerrière* lost one

hundred men; all her masts and rigging were shot away, and she sank shortly after. The *Constitution* had fourteen men killed and wounded, and was very little damaged.

In October, the sloop *Wasp* captured the British sloop *Frolic;* and in the same month the frigate *United States*, commanded by Captain Decatur, off the island of Madeira after a fight of an hour and a half, compelled the British

Constitution (Old Ironsides) Destroying the Guerrière, August 19, 1812.

frigate *Macedonian* to strike her colors. The *Macedonian* was dismasted and brought away as a prize. Her loss was one hundred and six men, that of the Americans twelve, and our ship was comparatively unharmed.

December 29, 1812, the *Constitution*, under Captain Bainbridge, made a total wreck of the British frigate *Java* off the coast of Brazil; and in the following February the sloop *Hornet*, under Captain Lawrence, sank the British

brig *Peacock*. The *Java* lost two hundred and thirty men, and the *Peacock* went down with all on board.

§ 9. In a Brave Fight We Lost a Fine Ship.

Six contests and six defeats for the British navy in the first eight months of the war shattered the charm of invincibility which was supposed to hang about English ships of war. The real secret of the matter was that the Americans had better ships, better men, and better gunnery.

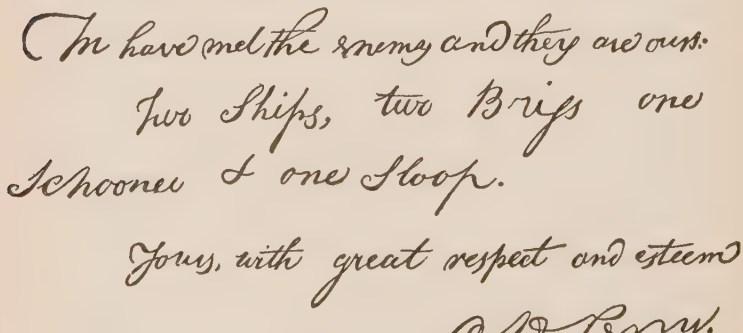
An acute English captain, Philip Broke, commanding the frigate *Shannon*, took a lesson from the Americans, and trained his crew thoroughly. Then, sailing to Boston, he challenged the frigate *Chesapeake*, commanded by Captain Lawrence late of the *Hornet*, to a contest outside the harbor. Lawrence, with more courage than discretion, accepted the challenge. His crew was new and untrained. The *Chesapeake* was captured and taken to Halifax, with Lawrence dying from his wounds. So great was the jubilation over this victory in England, that Broke was made a baronet. But the loss of the *Chesapeake* was to be avenged.

§ 10. Perry Won a Great Victory on the Lakes.

On Lake Erie the fleets built by English and Americans met on September 10, 1813. So far we had generally won in ship-duels. Could we win in fleet encounters, the strongest feature of British naval warfare? The flag-ship of the American Commodore, Oliver Hazard Perry, was named the *Lawrence*, and carried a flag inscribed with the dying words of the captain of the *Chesapeake*, "Don't give up the ship." In officers and men the fleets were evenly matched. There were nine ships of the Americans to six of the British, but the latter carried more guns, and of longer range.

In the attack the *Lawrence* was made the special target of the English long-range guns, and was battered almost into wreckage. Perry jumped with his flag into a boat, and was rowed, under heavy fire, to his next largest ship, the *Niagara*. Then getting into close range with his fleet, he won the battle in short order. Barclay, the British commander, was a veteran who had served under Nelson at Trafalgar, and in this action, well fought on both sides, the naval prestige of England received a heavy blow.

Upon the deck of his shattered flag-ship, Perry, then a young man of twenty-eight years, received the British officers who came one after another, in surrender, from the entire fleet of six vessels. To General Harrison, who was in command of the army of the West, Perry wrote the famous despatch, "We have met the enemy, and they are ours."


We have met the enemy and they are ours.
Two Ships, two Brigs one
Schooner & one Sloop.
Yours, with great respect and esteem
O H Perry.

§ 11. Harrison Followed with a Victory on the Land.

The victory gave control of Lake Erie to the Americans. Perry transported Harrison and his troops across to Canada. The British were compelled to evacuate Detroit. Harrison next routed the combined forces of the English and

Indians at the Battle of the Thames, where the famous chief Tecumseh was killed. The enemy never after got a foothold in Michigan.

§ 12. We Lost Elsewhere and then Recovered our Losses.

In marked contrast with this brilliant naval success upon Lake Erie, the military leaders on the Niagara and St. Lawrence rivers continued the display of incapacity which had hitherto characterized the campaign in those regions. Wilkinson, a relic of the Revolution, and Wade Hampton, a haughty Carolinian who was his bitter enemy, made very bad work of the proposed joint invasion of central Canada to capture Montreal; and the troops under their command returned without effecting anything.

At last Congress woke up to the fact that ancient reputations and political influence would not win victories. A thorough re-organization was made; and Jacob Brown, a New York militia officer, who by native abilities had risen to a prominent position in the army, was put in charge of operations. Under him young Winfield Scott distinguished himself, and the battles of Chippewa and Lundy's Lane were fought with credit to American arms.

§ 13. Andrew Jackson Gained Practice in the Art of War.

In the Southwest, that born leader of men, Andrew Jackson, was heard from. With Tennessee State volunteer troops he quelled the great revolt of the Creek Indians and broke their power in the battle of Horseshoe Bend on the Tallapoosa River in eastern Alabama, where eight hundred of the Creeks were killed. This revolt had been incited by British and Spanish agents, and by Tecumseh, the Indian agitator. Jackson's success made him a national hero.

Later in the War Jackson raised more volunteers, and went to the help of New Orleans, as it was known that a great naval and military expedition from England was on the way to capture the city.

§ 14. Macdonough Won on Lake Champlain.

In the summer of 1814 the British attempted the invasion of New York State by the way of Lake Champlain as Burgoyne had done thirty-seven years before. But Thomas Macdonough, commanding a small fleet of American vessels, defeated the British fleet September 11, 1814, in a brilliant engagement that rivaled the victory of Lake Erie, and the invasion was in consequence recalled.

§ 15. The British Took an Unprotected Capital.

In August the British, with a fleet and five thousand men, made a raid on Washington, the Capital of our country. After defeating a large body of volunteer soldiers and burning the public buildings there, they made an attempt on Baltimore, but the fleet met a decided repulse at Fort McHenry which defended the city. Then the fleet and troops, British regulars and French hirelings, sailed away, having accomplished nothing but the wanton ruin of Washington.

One thing of great interest resulted to this country from the attack on Fort McHenry, worth far more than all the public buildings burned at the Capital. This was the composition of the "Star Spangled Banner," by Francis Scott Key, a young Marylander who watched the flag on the Fort during its bombardment. The words were set to the already familiar music of "Anacreon," and the whole country was soon ringing with the patriotic and inspiring song.

§ 16. England's Navy Overwhelmed Our Commerce Upon the Atlantic, but One Ship Destroyed Hers Upon the Pacific.

The year 1814 preceded the final overthrow of the great Napoleon. In it England was comparatively free to attend to her war with America. The result was that, with her thousand great war-vessels she succeeded in blockading our Atlantic coast harbors and in putting an end to our sea-trade. In the Pacific, David Porter, captain of the *Essex*, swept the British whalers from the seas, only to be taken himself in the neutral harbor of Valparaiso in a fight with two British vessels.

§ 17. We Fought and Won the Greatest Battle of the War Fifteen Days after the Treaty of Peace.

Sir Edward Pakenham, brother-in-law and subordinate officer of the great Duke of Wellington, who was destined in this same year, 1815, to overthrow at Waterloo Napoleon, Emperor of the French, landed near New Orleans, with twelve thousand men. He hoped to win the Louisiana Territory. The defense of the city had been hastily arranged by General Jackson, who had six thousand men under him, a motley crowd made up of Louisiana militia, ex-pirates, prisoners, free Negroes, and volunteers from Tennessee and Kentucky. Fortunately, these last were fine rifle-shots. Behind a ditch and rude earthworks this mongrel army under Jackson awaited the assault of the well-trained soldiers of Wellington.

What followed was a fine lesson to Europe, teaching the value of individual skill in soldiers. The veterans of the British army, marching bravely to the attack, were mowed down by cannon balls and by rifle bullets until human nature could stand the ordeal no longer. Pakenham was

killed, and the officer second in command was mortally wounded. Over two thousand of his army fell in the assault, while the backwoodsmen suffered a loss of about twenty killed and wounded. As Monroe wrote to Jackson, "History records no example of so glorious a victory won with so little loss on the part of the victors." The British at once packed up and left for the West Indies.

General Andrew Jackson at the Battle of New Orleans, Jan. 8, 1815.

§ 18. We Won Again on the Sea, when News of Peace Arrived.

Soon after, as a fitting climax to the brilliant record of the navy, came the news that the gallant frigate *Constitution* had captured two British vessels in a single action, the *Cyane* and the *Levant*. Finally, the news arrived from Ghent that a treaty of peace had been signed which these last successes made all the more binding, at least upon

Great Britain. The impressment of seamen had been gloriously avenged by the navy, and the United States emerged from the war with the respect of Europe. For more than eighty years thereafter not a hostile shot was exchanged between this country and any European power.

§ 19. We were Assured of the Respect of Europe.

In the treaty signed at Ghent, December 23, 1814, not a word was said about the questions of impressment, of right of search, and of the trade of neutrals in war-time, but it was commonly understood that hereafter all the contentions of the Americans were to stand as international law. Such was the influence of fifteen victories at sea in eighteen fights, in not one of which, however, was any one of England's greatest frigates engaged. These were constantly needed against Napoleon.

Conspiracy of Tecumseh.

§ 20. The Last Great Conspiracy of the Indians Came to Naught.

Besides the international difficulties, there arose several difficulties with the Indians. The American aborigines had not a few confederations before the white men came here. In the days of John Smith, a chief by name Waheensonacook, commonly known as Powhatan, father of Pocahontas, had made himself the head of thirty Virginia tribes, 1607. A few years later in southeastern New England, Metacoma, commonly known as King Philip, organized his great war-alliance. A century later, there was planned the formidable conspiracy of Pontiac.

The Indians had a positive genius for conspiracy, but no

talent at all for confederation, except only in the case of the Iroquois Nations. Their alliance may date from the mythical, yet not impossible, diplomacy of Hiawatha, a hero in our American poetry located rather too far west to fit the facts recently discovered.

There arose in 1804 two leaders, Tecumseh, and his brother Elskwatawa, "The Prophet," a great medicine-man, who set about organizing a secret confederation of all the Indians from the Appalachians to the Mississippi. He succeeded in interesting many thousands of Indians, including the Shawnees of the North and the Creeks and Seminoles of the South. His brother was defeated by Harrison at Tippecanoe in 1811. Tecumseh himself, while supporting the British, was killed in the battle of the Thames, 1813, at the same time of the year as the Creeks were overthrown by Jackson in the South.

Seminole Chief.

Thus ended what might have been a tremendous uprising, fomented as it was by both the British and the Spanish. The Western settlers, in Tennessee, Kentucky, and Ohio, had been the men most urgent in bringing on the "War of 1812," alleging that the British were secret supporters of the dangerous Indians. After Tecumseh's death, the Indians moved further west rapidly, leaving "the land of the western waters" to peaceful settlement.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. Compare the American, English, and French Revolutions.
2. How was the United States involved in the Napoleonic Wars?
3. What was the war with France, 1799–1800?
4. Discuss the wars with the Barbary States.
5. What were the causes of the "War of 1812?"
6. Discuss Clay's views regarding impressment and naturalization.
7. Give an account of the land-battles in 1812.
8. Discuss the sea-battles.
9. Give an account of the defeat of the *Chesapeake*.
10. Give an account of the battle of Lake Erie.
11. What was the result of the battle of the Thames?
12. Discuss the next following land battles.
13. Give an account of Andrew Jackson in the Southwest.
14. Give an account of the battle of Lake Champlain.
15. Discuss the burning of Washington.
16. Compare the records upon the Atlantic and the Pacific in 1814.
17. Give an account of the battle of New Orleans.
18. What was the last brilliant exploit of the *Constitution?*
19. What were the results of the War?
20. Discuss Indian Conspiracies and the death of Tecumseh.

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Contemporaries*. Vol. III.

Ford's *True Benjamin Franklin*.

Duyckinck's *Portrait Gallery*. Our Naval Heroes.

Larned's *History for Ready Reference*, Vol. 5, and Harper's *Encyclopedia of United States History* for all soldiers, sea-captains, ships, and battles of importance.

SUGGESTED TOPICS FOR ADDITIONAL INQUIRY.

1. The *Chesapeake*. Cause of the War; Later Record.
2. The *Constitution* ("Old Ironsides").
3. Stephen Decatur, Andrew Jackson, Tecumseh, etc., etc.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1775–1783. War of Independence.
1799–1800. War with France.
1812–1815. War with Great Britain.
1814. Treaty of Peace.

CHAPTER II.

THE MEXICAN WAR, 1846–1848.

§ 1. The Annexation of Texas Involved Us in War.

With the annexation of the Republic of Texas in 1845, the United States, as predicted by Webster, Clay, Benton, and other statesmen, annexed also a war with Mexico. The boundary line of Texas and Mexico was in dispute before annexation, and became a burning question after that.

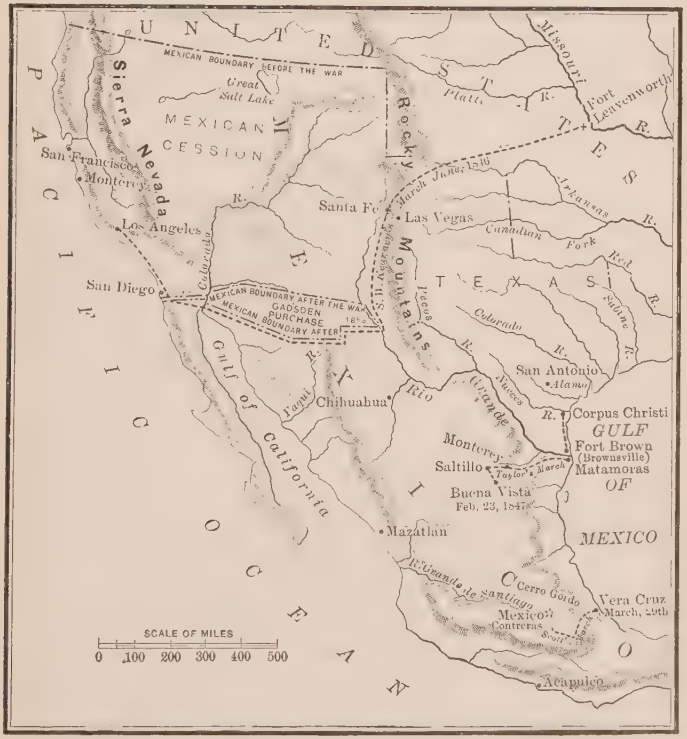
Texas insisted that the old line, in accordance with the claims of the original pioneer, La Salle, and recognized by treaties of Spain with both England and France, established the border on the Rio Grande River; while Mexico contended that the Nueces River, which was the southern boundary line of Texas when it was a Mexican State, was the proper line.

When Texas established her independence of Mexico, this question was left in an unsettled condition, and became a legacy of war to the United States. The technical rights of the question are open to discussion, but there is no doubt whatever that the Rio Grande is the natural boundary line rather than the insignificant River Nueces, which reached but little over two hundred miles inland. The Rio Grande extends over a thousand miles to the great continental divide of the Rocky Mountains in Colorado.

§ 2. American Soldiers were Captured.

This debatable area between the Nueces and the Rio Grande had been the scene of many social disorders; and the government of the United States, taking the Texas side of the question, sent a force of men under General Taylor to seize the district. Taylor advanced along the

Gulf Coast as far as the Rio Grande, and built Fort Brown opposite the Mexican town of Matamoras on the other side of the river. Hearing that Mexican troops were crossing the river at different points, he sent Captain Thornton with



Mexican War and Cessions of Territory.

a troop of cavalry to reconnoiter. Thornton's party was surrounded, and after a fight in which several were killed and wounded, was finally captured by a much larger Mexican force. This was the first bloodshed.

§ 3. Polk Declared War.

President Polk at once announced that a state of War existed, begun by the Mexicans with the slaughter of Americans on American soil. Although this statement begged the question at issue, which involved the ownership of the soil, it served the purpose of the Administration, and the war was undertaken before Congress could act.

Polk and most of his party, and most of the Southern people, desired the war as a means of territorial expansion. The Northern Whigs opposed it bitterly.

§ 4. Taylor Won at Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma.

Taylor's first move was to fall back to the Nueces to secure supplies, leaving a garrison which bravely held the fort on the Rio Grande. Having effected his purpose, he advanced again, and not far from Fort Brown met the Mexican army under General Arista, drawn up in a strong position at Palo Alto. Taylor's force was somewhat over 2,000 men, while that of the Mexicans was about 5,000.

The battle which followed was peculiar in that it was an artillery duel entirely, May 8, 1846. The American loss was small; but the Mexicans suffered severely, and retreated over-night to a position at Resaca de la Palma, on the farther side of a ravine that intersected the high-road. The Americans attacked on the day following. After a tremendous fight the engagement ended with a charge of dragoons and then with a charge of infantry which put the Mexicans to rout. They fled in panic to the Rio Grande, where many were drowned in trying to swim across to Matamoras. Taylor crossed the river with his forces the following week, and occupied Matamoras without resistance.

§ 5. Politics Brought Scott Into Prominence to Offset Taylor.

These early operations of the war were not of great magnitude,— Taylor's losses in the two engagements being less than two hundred killed and wounded, — but they made a great sensation throughout the United States. Taylor was the new hero of the hour, and began to be talked about for the Presidency. The fact that Taylor was reaping the glories of the war, made Scott, the general-in-chief of the army, envious. The old hero of Lundy's Lane in the War of 1812 desired to go to the front himself, but had been held back by the politicians of a Democratic administration, who fully appreciated the dangers of making "Presidential timber" out of Whig "war-heroes."

Taylor, too, was a Whig, and it was greatly regretted by the President and his advisers that no good Democrat could be found who measured up to the standard of the two Whig generals. When, a few months later, Taylor followed up his initial successes with a brilliant capture of the strongly fortified city of Monterey, the feeling in Administration circles was that the time had come to make a change. An expedition was planned for the capture of the City of Mexico, the Capital of the nation, and Scott was assigned to lead it, not because the authorities loved Scott more, but that it enabled them to fear Taylor less.

§ 6. Taylor Won a Fight at Great Odds.

Taylor's army was reduced in order to strengthen Scott, who was to land at Vera Cruz, and to pursue the historic route of Cortes over the mountains to the Capital. Taylor's position became unsafe early in the following year. He had gone beyond Monterey, as far as Saltillo; and his army,

now reduced from 15,000 to 5,000 men, was threatened by Santa Anna, who was again at the head of the Mexican Government, and who, hearing of the reduction in Taylor's army, had marched against him with 20,000 men.

In spite of the tremendous odds against him, Taylor determined to fight. He placed his troops in a good defensive position on a plateau at Buena Vista, at the edge of the mountains, and waited for the Mexicans to come on. Santa Anna at first sent a summons to Taylor to surrender, assuring him that he was surrounded by 20,000 men, and could not possibly escape. His invitation was declined. Santa Anna waited till next day, February 23, 1847. Early in the forenoon the Mexicans attacked Taylor's left and center in solid columns. Soon, where the fire was hottest, a regiment of raw recruits from Indiana broke and fled. It was a critical moment. Taylor at once brought to the front the Mississippians under Jefferson Davis, a Kentucky regiment, and artillery. These, joined by an Illinois regiment, drove back the Mexicans, and blocked their pursuit of the fugitives.

The battle was long and desperate. Charge after charge of the Mexican cavalry was repulsed. The American artillery was splendidly served, and played havoc with the Mexicans. Later in the battle a large body of Mexican cavalry, skirting along the mountains, threatened the Hacienda of Buena Vista, and the American supplies in the rear. Colonel May of the artillery, and the mounted volunteers of Arkansas and Kentucky under Coles, Marshall, and Yell, met this new danger. In a charge that put the enemy to flight, the brave leader Yell was killed at the head of his soldiers.

On the American right the fighting was severe. Here fell Colonels Hardin, McKee, and Clay, the last a son of the Kentucky statesman, Henry Clay, who as leader of the Whigs opposed the War. Night came on, and the fighting ceased. In the morning it was found that Santa Anna had retreated. Some days later he entered San Luis Potosi with about one-half of the fine army that fought Taylor at Buena Vista.

The annals of modern history afford no parallel to the swift and overwhelming success of this engagement. Taylor soon after returned to the United States, for there was nothing more to do in northern Mexico, and he had not been invited to join Scott's enterprise farther south. But he needed no further glory. Buena Vista made him the next President.

§ 7. Scott Won at Vera Cruz and Cerro Gordo.

Early in March, 1847, Scott landed below Vera Cruz with an army of 12,000 men, and invested the city. After a bombardment of nine days it surrendered.

The high-road to Mexico City from Vera Cruz is a constant rise to higher and higher ground, and the country abounds in natural fortifications formed by the mountains. At a pass called Cerro Gordo, on the road to Mexico, Santa Anna had collected an army of 12,000 men. Scott's force, numbering 9,000, attacked the Mexicans at this point, and gained a brilliant victory. Five Mexican generals and 3,000 prisoners were taken, and the army was put to flight.

Pushing on, Scott passed through Jalapa to Puebla; and as the country was high, cool, and healthy, the army spent a part of the summer there, waiting for re-enforcements.

Battle of Cerro Gordo.

§ 8. The Advance upon the City of Mexico.

In August, Scott resumed his march, and reached the vicinity of the City of Mexico without further fighting. On August 20 several successes for American arms are recorded. The fortified camp of Contreras was stormed. The fortified village of San Antonio was captured, and the two fortified heights of Churubusco were separately stormed. Finally, after the battles of Molino del Rey and Chapultepec, Santa Anna, who had come out of the city to assist his garrisons, was driven back into the city.

Negotiations for peace followed these successes until Scott learned that Santa Anna was taking advantage of the delay to strengthen his works. He then resumed hostilities, and after a series of brilliant operations stormed the splendid citadel of Chapultepec. The Americans swarmed

over the walls with the aid of scaling-ladders. The last stronghold of the City's defense was now gone, and Santa Anna with his army and with the chief officials of the Government fled at midnight. The officers who had remained approached Scott before daylight, and offered to capitulate. Scott, disappointed at the escape of those whom he particularly wished to capture, refused to sign any

Battle of Molino del Rey.

articles of capitulation, and entered the City with his troops, meeting no resistance. The Stars and Stripes were hoisted over the National Palace, and the second conquest of Mexico was consummated.

Before this time, however, the uninterrupted successes of the Americans began to pall upon the public taste. Although the fall of Mexico gratified the national pride, it was felt that the Mexicans were easy victims, and the

triumphal entry of the Capital by Scott and his army excited but a tithe of the enthusiasm that attended the earlier victories of old "Rough and Ready" Taylor, who had practically been discarded by the United States Government.

§ 9. California, New Mexico, and Other Regions were Wrested from the Weak Hands of Mexico.

Earlier in the War California and the region that is now Utah, Nevada, Arizona, and New Mexico fell into the hands of the Americans, through the work of the navy, aided by Captain John C. Fremont, and by the expedition of General Kearney with a little army of 1,800 men. When the time of treaty-making came, the United States believed that we could make better use of this vast territory than Mexico. Consequently its cession to us was insisted upon, and a price was paid for it that, with the price of the subsequent cession of a small additional strip on the southern border of Arizona, called the Gadsden Purchase, 1853, amounted in all to $28,000,000. This was, perhaps, a fair price for it at the time, and relatively much greater than the sum paid Napoléon for Louisiana.

General Scott Entering the City of Mexico.

§ 10. The Cause of the War was the Land Hunger of a Progressive People.

A large portion of the American people, especially the anti-slavery element, did not favor the war with Mexico, fearing the designs of the South for an extension of slave-territory in the vast regions of the Southwest. The war, they claimed, was begun in aggression, and had ended in spoliation. The political heartburnings and conflicts engendered on its account grew, and mingled in the great anti-slavery movement of 1850–60.

The "wrath of man" has been overruled to the praise of God as the years have rolled by, and the war with Mexico is now seen to have been a questionable means to an excellent end. It grew from the forth-stepping spirit of the American people, to whom the main stretch of the Continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific now belongs. The Southerners desired Texas and the region west, partly for new slave States so as to protect their representation in the National Senate, but mainly for more cheap lands upon which to establish great slave-labor plantations. However, the desire of the Southerners for more land was scarcely stronger than that of the Westerners, who had no slaves.

§ 11. The Mexican War was a School for the War of Secession.

As the early intercolonial wars of the eighteenth century had been the only school for the training of George Washington, John Stark, Israel Putnam, and many others of the leaders of the Revolution, so the Mexican War was the school for the leaders of the War of Secession that followed but fourteen years later. In the Mexican War, Captain

Robert E. Lee made himself famous for his services as an engineer in the siege of Vera Cruz, and Lieutenant Ulysses S. Grant led a gallant assault at Chapultepec. Thomas, Davis, Jackson, Sherman, McClellan, and Farragut were also engaged in the War.

§ 12. Results of the Establishment of Military and Naval Academies.

It is interesting to see, in the careers of Lee, Grant, and others, the results of the training at West Point Military Academy, established in 1802, but not completely organized until 1817, as the result of the War of 1812 and its early military disasters. The Annapolis Naval Academy was begun in 1845 upon the foundations of an earlier school, and was organized thoroughly in 1850. Neither Scott nor Taylor, Perry nor Jackson, Washington nor Greene nor Paul Jones, was regularly educated to arms on sea or land. But since the Mexican War, most of the great soldiers and sailors have been men trained for their duties. Grant, Lee, Sherman, Jackson, and Dewey were graduated at either West Point or Annapolis.

As civilization advances, all the arts become more difficult, including the art of war. The generals and the admirals of recent years have been trained for their successes by long years of special education.

It is also interesting to note that the New England States and New York and Ohio, which were seriously opposed to the Mexican War, and sent few soldiers to engage in it, did not contribute any one of the great soldiers in the armies of the War of Secession, for lack of war-experience, though these States of the Northeast were vigorous supporters of the Union cause in 1861–1865.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. In 1845 what was the boundary dispute with Mexico?
2. Give an account of the first incident of the War.
3. Who supported and who opposed the War?
4. Give an account of Taylor's first victories.
5. Discuss the political cause of the expedition under Scott.
6. Give an account of the battle of Buena Vista.
7. Give an account of Scott's campaign and battles.
8. Discuss events before the entry into the city of Mexico.
9. What cessions of land did Mexico make to our nation?
10. What were the fundamental causes of the war with Mexico?
11. Discuss the Mexican War as a school for soldiers in the War of Secession.
12. Give accounts of West Point Military and Annapolis Naval Academies.

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Contemporaries*, Vol. IV., pp. 11–34.
Von Holst's *Constitutional and Political History of the United States*, Vol. III., Chaps. IV.–IX.
Ladd's *History of the Mexican War:* also Mansfield's.
Howard's *Life of General Taylor*, Chaps. VIII.–XIX.
Noll's *Short History of Mexico*, Chap. IX.
Harper's *Encyclopedia of United States History.*
Schouler's *History of the United States*, Vol. IV., pp. 495, *et seq.*

ADDITIONAL TOPICS.

1. Polk's Reasons for the War.
2. Clay's Reasons for Opposing the War.
3. Causes of the Easy Victories of the Americans.
4. Good and Evil Results of the War.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1775–1783. War of Independence.
1812–1814 (1815). British-American War.
1845. Annexation of Texas.
1846–1847. Mexican-American War.
1850. The Fugitive Slave Law.
1861–1865. War of Secession.

CHAPTER III.

THE WAR OF SECESSION.

§ 1. Causes of the War.

1. The Southerners had long been dominant in the National Government. They saw the free-labor Northerners growing stronger. Fearing loss of political supremacy, they began the War as a challenge, expecting either handsome terms for re-admission to the Union, or peaceful permission to set up a new nation.

2. The decline and final disappearance of slavery in the North, and its great increase in the South, established a marked difference in the social life between the two sections, whose interests were apparently irreconcilable.

3. The Southerners believed that the States had the right to secede. They acted upon this belief, and immediately made a new federation, like the old one in all important particulars except those relating to slavery. The Southern States seized upon the property of the Union as belonging to them in due proportion to the other States.

All the causes of the war were Southern, since that section took the aggressive and began the fighting. The Union forces did not "invade" the South, for that was not a foreign nation. They were endeavoring to restore the authority of the National Government in that rebellious region. The Union never recognized the Confederacy as a nation.

§ 2. The Story is in Two Parts: the Progressive Movement from the West, and the Circling Combat in the East.

In its large outlines, the story of the War of Secession is simple. Its first important battle was at Bull Run, and its

last at Appomattox; the former near the Federal Capital, Washington; the latter near the Confederate Capital, Richmond. More men perished on the battlefields of Virginia than on those of all the other States combined.

After the capture of New Orleans and of the great Mississippi valley, the armies of the West advanced eastward to the Ocean and then northward, until they were almost in touch with the armies of Virginia when the War was over. A continuous game was played between the opposing forces in eastern Virginia; and a progressive fight was carried on eastward from the great Southwest. It took two years to gain control of the Mississippi, and two more to overrun the Confederate States; while the sanguinary warfare circled unceasingly around Washington and Richmond.

§ 3. The History of the War in the West is Less Horrible and More Picturesque than that of the War in the East.

To Farragut, Porter, and Grant, is credited the capture of the Mississippi, and to Grant, Sherman, Rosecrans, and Thomas, are credited the operations that successfully moved the Union armies through the Southern States and up to Virginia. As for the conflict in Virginia, no great credit is to be awarded the leaders, though much to the men who were led to slaughter. In that dreadful region of death, more than three hundred thousand lives were lost in four years. The fighting in the South and in the Mississippi valley was on a broader scale, and was far more brilliant and picturesque. Great rivers and mountain ranges, dismal forests and swamps, ocean, gulf, and plain, formed its vast field of action. Long marches and grand strategy characterized it. Though the loss of life was great in these

Western and Southern campaigns, the variety of incident breaks the gloom of war; but the story of the death-pen in Virginia is crowded full of horrors.

§ 4. Fort Sumter Fell, April 12, 1861.

The attack upon Fort Sumter in Charleston Harbor, April 12, 1861, is usually considered the beginning of hostilities, although the firing upon the merchant steamer

Charleston from the Bay, 1860.

Star of the West, some months before, when on its way with provisions to Major Anderson and his troops in the Fort, was really the first incident, January 9. Just three days later, January 12, a vessel of the navy in the Gulf had captured several Confederates, and had sent them as prisoners to New York. On April 12 occurred the first attack upon Fort Pickens in Pensacola Harbor, where Lieutenant Adam J. Slemmer was in command of the little garrison of eighty men. Every port upon the coast-line of the seceding States was taken by the Confederates except this, which was held valiantly and successfully by the Union soldiers and sailors.

§ 5. Toombs had Protested Against the Attack.

The Confederate Secretary of State at Montgomery, Robert Toombs, had judged the situation better than his associates when he advised against the attack on Fort Sumter. Said he, "The firing upon that Fort will inaugurate a civil war greater than any the world has yet seen. You will wantonly strike a hornet's nest which extends from the mountains to ocean, and legions now quiet will swarm out and sting us to death. It is unnecessary, it puts us in the wrong, it is fatal!" In spite of the warning, President Davis sent orders to reduce the Fort.

Robert Toombs.
Born, 1810; died, 1885.
Brigadier-General Confederate Army: Confederate Secretary of State.

The firing upon Fort Sumter was an act of war, as was each seizure of forts and arsenals and of United States supplies by the Confederacy at this time throughout the South. But the picture of the little garrison in Charleston, the nursery of secession, bombarded, starved out, and compelled to pull down the American flag, fired the Union heart as nothing else could.

§ 6. Lincoln Called for Seventy-five Thousand Volunteers.

In response to President Lincoln's proclamation the day after the surrender, calling for seventy-five thousand men, without regard to party there was an instant outburst of sentimental patriotism. The Flag must be vindicated, and hundreds of thousands of volunteers offered their services.

A few days after the fall of Sumter, April 19, 1861, the

anniversary of the battle of Lexington, a regiment of volunteers from Massachusetts on its way to Washington was fired upon in passing through Baltimore, and several men were killed.

§ 7. The Two Capitals were but One Hundred Miles Apart.

In May, 1861, the Confederacy moved its Capital from Alabama to Virginia, and Richmond was made the seat of government. This was done out of the Southern affection for Virginia, the mother-State of the South, but it was a strategic error. Atlanta would have been a better center for the new Government. The two Capitals, Washington and Richmond, one hundred miles apart from north to south, became headquarters of enormous military preparations. Both were speedily turned into fortified camps, and glared at each other over a little tract of well wooded and watered country, soon to be soaked in blood.

§ 8. Missouri, Kentucky, and Maryland Supported the Union.

In the great West preparations for war were pushed with vigor. The majority of the people in Missouri were opposed to secession, but the government was in the control of men strongly in sympathy with the South, who dragged the State into the Southern alliance. The State was saved to the Union by the energetic action of Frank P. Blair, a lawyer of St. Louis, and of Captain Nathaniel Lyon, United States Commandant at the Arsenal in that city. These two men, backed by public sentiment, overturned the Secessionist State government, and put a loyal government in its place, an exploit worth many battles to the North.

Kentucky, at first neutral, cast in her lot with the North, stimulated by premature military raids from the South.

Maryland was held in the Union by her geographical position and by Federal forces; and little Delaware remained of her own volition.

Many citizens of these border slave States joined the Confederate armies.

George B. McClellan.
Born, 1826; died, 1885.
Lieutenant, Mexican War; General; Governor New Jersey.

§ 9. West Virginia Seceded and Remained in the Union.

Virginia had seceded, but West Virginia broke away, with forty-eight counties (now fifty-five) to stay in the Union.

At its eastern corner is Harper's Ferry, scene of John Brown's fanatic heroism, which the freedom-loving mountaineers understood and admired.

Thus the lines were drawn between North and South; and after a few preliminary skirmishes in West Virginia, in which the Union forces, under General McClellan, drove the Confederates out of the State, hostilities began in the region between the two Capitals.

§ 10. Bull Run was the First Great Battle.

The cry from the North was "On to Richmond," while the South urged its army "On to Washington." July 16, about thirty thousand national troops, under General McDowell, set out from Washington. A few days later they encountered the Confederate forces under General Johnston at Bull Run, a small stream about twenty-five miles southwest of the city. It was a conflict of raw

troops on both sides. The Union forces outnumbered the Confederates by a few thousand. Each side fought with bravery and sustained heavy losses. In the afternoon victory seemed to favor McDowell and his forces, when in the west was seen the dust of an approaching column. It might be troops from the Union General Patterson or from the Confederate General Early who had been watching each other in the Shenandoah Valley over to the westward. It was a critical moment. Johnston made ready for retreat, as he feared that a fresh Union column had arrived. But soon the Stars and Bars were discerned, and the hour of Confederate triumph had come. Three regiments of fresh soldiers fell upon the Union flank and rear. Panic followed, and then rout. The Federals retreated in disorder to Washington, leaving the Confederates victors on the field, but not in condition for vigorous pursuit.

Struggle on the Bridge in the Retreat from Manassas (Bull Run).

§ 11. The Federal Defeat Roused the North.

Bull Run shocked the North and elated the South, and the shock worked more benefit than the elation. It was evident now that the war was going to be a very serious

matter. Union sentiment was consolidated at the North, and grim determination took the place of the impatient expectation of speedy victory. McClellan was called from West Virginia to Washington to organize and to drill a large army. While he was attending to a task for which he was peculiarly well fitted, the Union armies in the great West prepared for the invasion of the South and for the seizure of the Mississippi.

§ 12. Active Movements Southward Began in the West.

General John C. Fremont was at this time in command of the Department of the West, with headquarters at St. Louis. Under orders from him, Grant, who had just risen from the colonelcy of an Illinois regiment to the rank of brigadier-general, occupied the important strategic point of Cairo at the junction of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers. A little later he moved on to Paducah, Kentucky, at the mouth of the Tennessee, and a few miles below the mouth of the Cumberland. The Confederates had fortified New Madrid, Columbus, and Island No. 10 below Cairo on the Mississippi, and had built Fort Henry on the Tennessee and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland. They had also established a strong camp at Bowling Green, Kentucky. A flotilla of gunboats was hastily constructed from river steamboats, by the enterprising Northerners, and the invasion of the South began early in 1862.

§ 13. General W. T. Sherman was Displaced Because He Understood Affairs.

A little before this time, General Sherman, in command at Louisville, lost the confidence of his superiors by what they called his "crazy" declaration that two hundred and

fifty thousand men would be required for operations in the great Southwest. His foresight, like that of Toombs at the time of the attack on Fort Sumter, did not find immediate approval, and he was superseded by General Buell.

§ 14. Thomas and Grant Won Successes.

General Thomas in central Kentucky distinguished himself by winning the first considerable victory in the campaign, at Mill Springs, where he defeated the Confederates under Zollicoffer, who was himself killed, and whose army was scattered. Albert Sidney Johnston was in command of the Confederate forces of the West, with headquarters at Bowling Green, when Grant began his advance across Kentucky into Tennessee. The Union general, moving up the Tennessee with seventeen thousand men and a gunboat flotilla, took Fort Henry, which surrendered without resistance before the land forces arrived. Meanwhile, the Confederate commander sent most of his garrison over to Fort Donelson, a much stronger position on the Cumberland, fifteen miles distant.

§ 15. Grant Took Fort Donelson and Forced a Retreat.

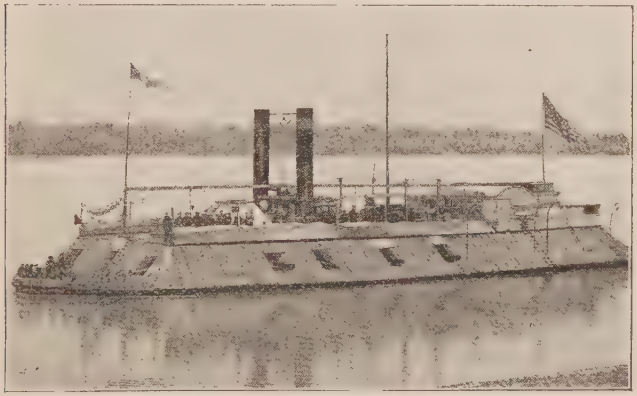
Here Grant won his first laurels of victory. He marched across country while the flotilla sailed down the Tennessee, up the Ohio a few miles, and then up the Cumberland. Fort Donelson was invested by land and river, and after a short siege and some heavy fighting, surrendered. Grant replied to General Buckner, who asked the terms of surrender, "No terms except immediate and unconditional surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works."

This was the first brilliant success of the War for the

Federals. What was more important than the capture of fifteen thousand Confederates was that two navigable rivers, which extended into the heart of the Confederacy, were opened to the Unionists. Johnston at Bowling Green, threatened from the rear, retreated at once through Nashville and Murfreesboro to Decatur and thence to Corinth, and Nashville fell into the hands of General Buell.

§ 16. Pope Took New Madrid and Island No. 10.

Grant, after the triumph at Fort Donelson, the capture of two great rivers, and the occupation of Nashville, was



Gunboat St. Louis.

forbidden further activity by his over-cautious superior officer, Henry W. Halleck, a good theoretical soldier and executive manager, who seldom ordered a battle. Shortly after the fall of Fort Donelson, General Pope, with the aid of Commander Foote's flotilla, captured New Madrid, March 14, and Island No. 10, April 8, on the Mississippi below Cairo, taking seven thousand Confederate prisoners.

§ 17. A Tremendous Battle was Fought at Pittsburg Landing.

The Confederates, under Johnston and Beauregard, had already retreated to the line of the Memphis and Charleston Railroad, and fortified their headquarters at Corinth. After some delay Grant was ordered to take his forces to Pittsburg Landing on the Tennessee River about twenty-four miles northeast of Johnston, and Buell received orders to join him there. Stimulated by chagrin at his long retreat, and goaded by the censure of President Davis,

Battle of Pittsburg Landing. (Shiloh.)

Johnston planned a quick move to surprise Grant, and caught him napping. It was not to be foreseen that the Confederates would leave their intrenchments at Corinth and make an attack in the open when the plan of the Federals was evidently to take the risk of attacking them within fortifications. But the unexpected is often the best strategy. In a heavy rainstorm Johnston suddenly rushed

his army, of forty thousand men, up to Pittsburg Landing, and by a furious attack drove Grant's surprised army into the angle formed by the Tennessee and the Snake.

§ 18. Sherman and Johnston were the Heroes of the Battle.

Not expecting attack, Grant at the time was at headquarters at Savannah, but fortunately Sherman was at the front. Immediately his genius for war became evident. His tall form was the most conspicuous figure in the fight. Horse after horse was shot under him, and he saved the troops from rout by his bravery and good judgment. His hat was shot through, and his uniform riddled. Though twice wounded by bullets, nothing dismayed him. The Federals were forced to retreat, but not in disorder.

Early in the day Grant came upon the field and took charge of his hard-pressed army. The Confederates then made a desperate effort to turn the Union left, and to drive them into the swamps of the Snake creek. Johnston himself led the gallant charge, and fell, mortally wounded. But the attack went on. Prentiss was surrounded and captured with a part of his division, and thousands of the Federals were driven to the banks of the Tennessee.

§ 19. The First Day's Fighting Ended in Union Defeat.

The Confederate General, Bragg, now planned to carry the last position on the Union left, and had almost succeeded when re-enforcements arrived. Ammen's brigade, which had been hurrying on in advance of Buell's army, hurried from the Landing, and received the attack of Bragg's troops. The advance regiment poured such a volley at short range into the Confederate forces that their ranks were broken and their men sent flying.

Meanwhile Sherman and McClernand on the right still held the bridge over the Snake. Night was coming on, and Beauregard, now in command, withdrew his men to the

William Tecumseh Sherman. Born, 1821; died, 1891; General.

Union camps of the previous night to give them food and rest for the conflict of the morrow. He did not know that Buell had already ascended the river from Savannah with his forces. Such was the first day of the bloodiest battle of the War in the Mississippi valley.

§ 20. The Second Day Saw a Union Victory.

On the second day of the fight the tables were turned. With twenty thousand fresh troops the Federals received the Confederate attack, made with a desperate valor that almost broke the left of the line. But the well-disciplined troops of Buell would not yield. In a storm of rain and sleet the order to advance was given. General Lew Wallace, who had been lost with his troops in the swamps on the first day of the battle, had by this time found his bearings, and had joined Sherman on the right. The tide of battle was turned, and the exhausted Confederates, outnumbered by half, were driven from the field.

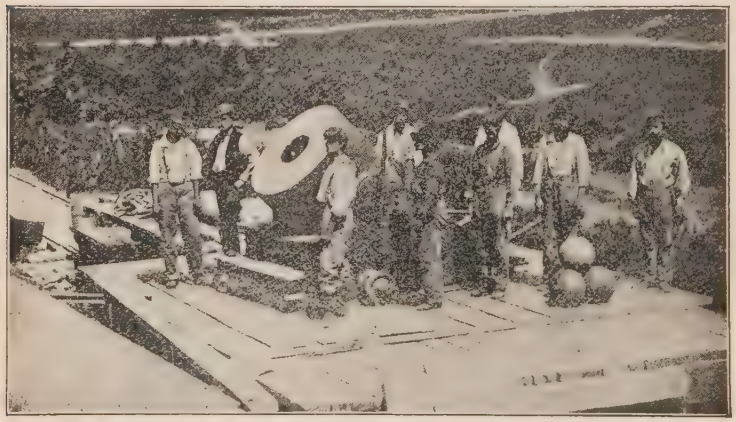
The losses in this battle, called Shiloh, from the name of a little church in the neighborhood of the Union camp, were thirteen thousand Federals and eleven thousand Confederates. Beauregard fell back with his shattered forces upon Corinth, and strengthened its defences. Johnston's death was an irreparable loss. He was considered by many in the South the best of her generals.

§ 21. Corinth was Deserted by the Confederates, and Memphis Fell.

General Halleck now appeared on the scene, and took active command. With the forces of Grant, Buell, and Pope thus re-enforced, Halleck now commanded one hundred thousand men. This was a great army, and something significant was to be expected of it. Halleck immediately appointed Grant second in command of all the forces. This was a very fortunate move. Halleck expected that the great battle of the war would be fought at Corinth, where Beauregard was intrenched with forty or fifty thousand men, and he insisted on approaching the locality in

accordance with the most scholarly military tactics. Every move was made with clock-like precision; no precaution was neglected, and the army intrenched every night.

Of course, progress was slow by this method, but it was sure. To advance twenty-four miles took almost as many days. When Corinth was finally reached, it had been deserted. The Confederates had retreated southward, and Pope pursued them for fifty miles. However, the occupation of Corinth on the Memphis and Charleston Railroad had one significant result; it led to the fall of Memphis on



Grant's Dictator, that Moved on Railways and Fired Bombs from One Place and Then Another.

the Mississippi, which was soon occupied by the Federals. The campaign of the spring of 1862 had thus effected important results, and must be regarded as, on the whole, highly favorable to the Union forces.

§ 22. Farragut Undertook the Capture of New Orleans.

To the military successes already recounted must be added others to the credit of the navy. Of the highest

importance was the capture of New Orleans. The river approach to New Orleans from the Gulf, by the main channel, was defended by two strong forts, — Fort Jackson and Fort St. Philip. After an ineffective bombardment from a distance, Commodore Farragut, who commanded the naval expedition, determined to try the hazardous experiment of running his fleet past the Forts. It was one of those efforts that succeed by reason of their surprising audacity. The Secessionists had obstructed the river below the forts by a chain stretched across it, and supported by a number of old sunken hulks. Farragut opened a passage through this obstruction, and in the early morning his fleet moved up toward the Forts in two columns.

David Glasgow Farragut.
Born, 1801; died, 1870.
Admiral.

Progress was slow, owing to the darkness, the strong current of the river, and the obstacles through which the boats had to find their way.

§ 23. The Vessels Passed the Forts and Won the City.

The ships were soon discovered from the Forts, which began firing at them red-hot balls. Union mortar-boats below, in a bend of the river, responded with shells, and the passing fleet poured grape-shot into the embrasures as the boats steamed by. Two of the vessels were caught in the barrier; one was disabled by a heavy shot, but fourteen out of seventeen ran by the Forts without receiving

serious injury. Once above the Forts they had little difficulty in overcoming the Confederate flotilla, which came down to meet them. Then they steamed up to the city, which immediately surrendered. Two days later it was occupied by the Union army under General Butler.

§ 24. Ironclads Met for the First Time in the World's History.

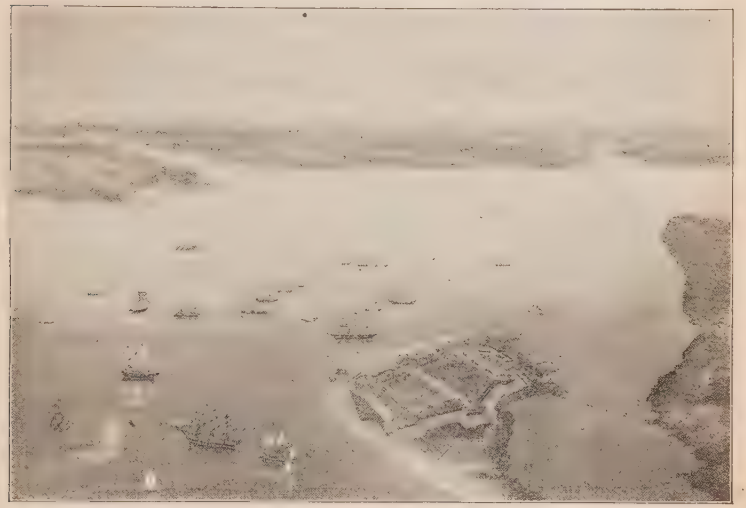
Meanwhile the work of organizing the great Army of the Potomac had continued. General McClellan was entirely at home in that task, but after many months of organization and drill, something further was demanded of the one hundred and fifty thousand fine troops under his command.

Before McClellan was ready for battle, however, the public, and indeed the whole world, was vastly interested in a naval contest near Fortress Monroe and Norfolk. The Confederates had built, at the Norfolk navy yard, a huge craft which they called the *Virginia*, and which was known by the Unionists as the *Merrimac*. It was, in fact, the hull of the United States frigate *Merrimac*, converted into a powerful ram, and sheathed with railroad iron. Its peculiar build was known and understood by Washington authorities; and Captain Ericsson, the great inventor, had been authorized to construct a craft to meet it. For months preceding the contest, it had been a race between the builders, and the *Merrimac* came out one day ahead at Norfolk.

§ 25. The Confederate Merrimac Destroyed the Cumberland and the Congress.

On the 8th of March, 1862, this terrible vessel, looking like a floating mansard roof with a tall iron chimney in the middle, steamed out and attacked the fleet of five wooden

United States war-ships in Hampton Roads. The *Merrimac* steamed for the *Cumberland*, the greatest of the fleet, and was received with a vigorous cannonade; but the heaviest balls glanced from her sloping sides. She majestically sped



Fortress Monroe.

onward, and with her iron beak rammed the unfortunate *Cumberland* with tremendous force. The wooden walls crashed inward at the impact, and the *Cumberland* sank in five minutes, with all on board, her colors flying.

Turning away from her first victim, the *Merrimac* attacked the frigate *Congress*. The water was too shallow where the *Congress* lay to allow the *Merrimac* to reach her with the ram, but the unfortunate vessel was so raked by the fire of the *Merrimac's* guns that she surrendered, and the Confederates burned her at once.

And now the United States steam frigate *Minnesota*, twin of the old *Merrimac*, came down from Fortress Monroe to take part in the battle. But darkness was coming on, and the *Merrimac* retired to Norfolk, expecting to finish her destructive work on the next day.

John Ericsson.
Born in Sweden, 1803; died, 1889.
Inventor, Screw-propeller, Revolving Turret, Self-acting Gun-lock, Torpedo-boat.

§ 26. The Alarm Spread Throughout the Nation.

This great exploit, telegraphed all over the country, caused an instant panic. It was said that evening in President Lincoln's Cabinet, "It is not unlikely that we shall have a shell or a ball from the *Merrimac* in the White House before we leave this room." Visions of bombardments and of great ransoms frightened the home-staying people of our seacoast cities.

§ 27. An Uneven Fight Ensued.

But Ericsson's craft, named the *Monitor*, with the famous Lieutenant Worden in command, had reached the lower Chesapeake in time to hear the distant cannonade and to see the sky lighted up by the flames of the burning *Congress*. The commander's orders took him to the Potomac, but what were orders at such a time! He made for the scene of disaster, and when next morning the *Merrimac* came out to finish up the *Minnesota*, the little *Monitor*, looking, as the spectators said, "like a cheese-box on a raft," steamed out of the lee of the *Minnesota* and challenged the

Merrimac to single combat. The battle lasted four hours. The *Monitor* in her revolving turret carried two eleven-inch guns. The *Merrimac* had more guns, but of smaller caliber. Both vessels were driven by screw-propellers. The *Merrimac* was twice as long and twice as broad as the *Monitor*, but unfortunately had lost her ram the preceding day. She drew a

Monitor and Merrimac, March 9, 1862.

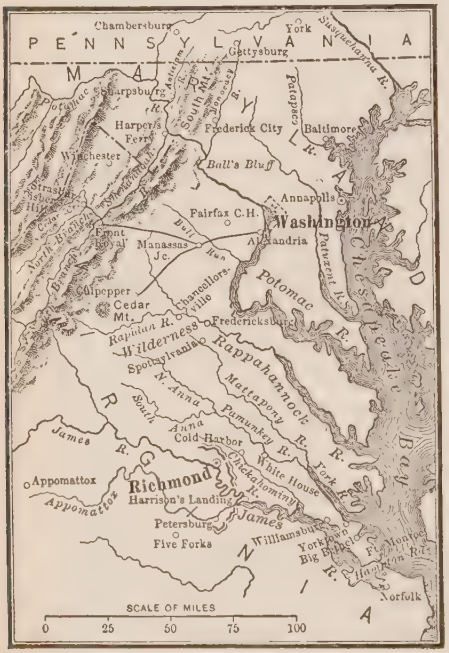
depth of water twice as great as the *Monitor*, a heavy handicap in the James River. The balls of neither made much impression on the other. The *Monitor* proved quicker in movement. At last one of the *Monitor's* big balls landed on the *Merrimac's* water-line, which sprung aleak. The *Merrimac's* engines were beginning to break down at this time, so that she gave up the fight and retired to Norfolk.

§ 28. Naval Warfare was Revolutionized.

By this battle Worden and Ericsson were made heroes for all time. Wooden ships of war were at once seen to be

doomed. The *Monitor* and the *Merrimac* became the forerunners of the vast fleets of ironclad war-ships that now patrol the oceans. These utilize all the good features of both the *Merrimac* and the *Monitor* types of war-ships, and also many new features made possible by the advance in science and in the technical arts since 1862.

Throughout the War, ironclad rams like the *Merrimac* continued to be used by the Confederacy. In the fall of 1864, Lieutenant Cushing performed the brilliant and hazardous exploit of blowing up with a torpedo the terrible ram *Albemarle* of the Confederacy upon the coast of North Carolina. The *Monitor* itself proved unseaworthy, and foundered off Cape Hatteras the last day of this very year. But New York City had been saved.



The War in Virginia.

Had not Lincoln alone of men in high Government station encouraged Ericsson, the *Merrimac* would have raised the blockade of the Atlantic and the Gulf, Europe might have recognized the Confederacy, and possibly the issue of the

war might have been different. Never was relief more opportune, for the opening of the Southern ports and the recognition of the Confederate States of America as a nation meant exports and imports, money, supplies, foreign loans, and encouragement from Europe. This battle was indeed the first great crisis of the War, which turned against the Confederacy and for the Union, foreshadowing the end.

§ 29. The Confederates Withdrew from Yorktown.

In striking contrast with this brilliant and rapid naval episode, and far less significant in that it accomplished nothing decisive, and was merely a link in the weary process of wearing out the Confederates, was the conflict in Virginia. McClellan had under him a large army which he had organized and drilled into good form. He was a young man of magnetic qualities, and his soldiers were singularly devoted to him. But unlike the great leaders who were to come out of the West, Grant and Sherman, McClellan was early placed in too important a post. He lacked certain great battle-qualities, was too cautious, and valued too highly the lives of his men. The authorities at Washington desired him to advance directly overland and to take Richmond, keeping his army between the enemy and Washington.

But this route was rough, and intersected by a dozen rivers and streams. McClellan preferred to carry his army by water to Fortress Monroe, and to move on Richmond by the York Peninsula. The authorities at Washington decided to let him do this, but to keep a part of the army under McDowell in front of Washington at Fredericksburg, and another army under Banks in the Shenandoah Valley. Yorktown, of Revolutionary fame, was the first

fortified position of the Secessionists on the way from Fortress Monroe to Richmond. It was attacked early in April by McClellan's army. After a month's siege, the Confederates abandoned it, and retired towards Richmond.

§ 30. The Nationals Won the Dreadful Battle of Fair Oaks.

McClellan's army, in following up the Confederates, was brought into a dangerous position, with one half of the men on the south side of the Chickahominy River, and the other half on the north side. General Joseph E. Johnston seized the opportunity to attack the Federal forces on the southern side of the river, after a sudden rise in the waters made crossing very difficult. In the bloody battle of Fair Oaks he certainly would have overwhelmed them, had not General Sumner of the Federals succeeded in crossing the river with his division and in attacking the Confederates in the rear. This turned the tide of battle. Johnston was wounded, and the Confederates were put to flight.

There was now an opportunity to press forward and to besiege Richmond, but McClellan, with almost half his army, kept to the north side of the river. The impetuous brigadier-generals Sickles and Meagher were within three miles of Richmond when they were called back, instead of being supported by thirty thousand fresh troops as they might have been.

§ 31. McClellan Executed a Masterly Retreat from Before Richmond, Winning a Great Victory.

McClellan, who always appeared to better advantage in defense than in attack, now gave the Confederates time to reorganize; then he settled down to the siege of Richmond.

Robert E. Lee, after the disabling of Johnston, took the Confederate command. This was the Lee to whom Lincoln had offered the second position in the Union army at the very beginning of the War, but who, opposing slavery as a blight to the South, after a long struggle with himself, felt that he must follow his native State of Virginia, his kin, and his friends, out of the Union and into the Confederacy. How different might have been the history of the War, if Lee had not given to the cause of slavery and secession the moral support of his noble character, the influence of his great family name, and the power of his matured military genius!

While McClellan was besieging Richmond, Stonewall Jackson came forward with his army. McClellan heard of this re-enforcement, and knew he must fall back. He executed a masterly retreat. Instead of backing out by the way he came, as the Confederates expected, he crossed the Chickahominy with his entire army, and made for the James river, there to establish a new base of supplies. He fought several battles by the way, and won a distinct victory over Lee at Malvern Hill, July 1, 1862, the last of the great Seven Days' Battles, in which McClellan lost 15,000 and Lee 20,000 men.

In this retreat, McClellan successfully misled Stonewall Jackson, outgeneraled Lee, and inflicted heavier losses than he suffered. Once on the James river at Harrison's Landing, he intrenched himself with his army of eighty thousand men. He expected to receive re-enforcements, and to move up the James against Richmond.

In the end McClellan had won most of the battles, but had lost the campaign.

§ 32. Union Generals were Rapidly Changed.

But now Halleck, shining in the glory of the Western Army, was called to Washington and made General-in-Chief, another experiment in the long and costly process of selecting generals. The South had the good fortune to find her best generals early in the War. Lee and Johnston were at the head of affairs long before Grant and Sherman controlled the Federal armies.

Thomas J. Jackson.
Born, 1824; accidentally killed, 1863.
Lieutenant, Mexican War: General, Confederate Army.

Halleck's first move was to order General Pope east from Tennessee to take command of the newly organized Army of Virginia. Pope was a vigorous leader, but no match in strategy for General Stonewall Jackson. In less than a month the Confederates so tangled Pope in the campaign of northern Virginia that he had to be helped out of his difficulties by his superiors. McClellan was ordered back to Washington with his troops, and put in command of the combined forces.

§ 33. Antietam Turned Back the Invasion.

The defeat of Pope led to the invasion of Maryland by Lee. The Confederates looked for hospitality, supplies, and recruits in that slave-holding State, which they felt was theirs by right. But the prudence of the Marylanders was far more in evidence than were their Southern sympathies. The Confederates did not meet with an encouraging reception despite the popularity of that famous and

beautiful Southern song, "Maryland, my Maryland." This had been written by an Atlanta journalist, born in Maryland, who hoped to rouse his native State.

The great army was carefully watched by McClellan, and September 17, 1862, the battle of Antietam creek occurred, at Sharpsburg, about forty miles northwest of Washington, and due north of Harper's Ferry. McClellan took the offensive, to drive the invaders out of Maryland. The result was a drawn battle. There was no driving out of the invaders. They took their time, and crossed the Potomac into Virginia without molestation. In the battle at Antietam creek, McClellan commanded eighty-seven thousand men, Lee about fifty-five thousand. It was a dreadful and bloody fight, in which nearly a dozen generals were killed or severely wounded. The Federal loss was about twelve thousand five hundred, the Confederate, eleven thousand.

§ 34. The Terrible Union Defeat at Fredericksburg.

Some weeks later, McClellan crossed the Potomac into Virginia. But he was not aggressive, and President Lincoln, urged by Stanton, Secretary of War, after much deliberation, removed him from command and put General Burnside in his place. This was a change from excessive caution to utter recklessness, and the unfortunate Army of the Potomac suffered for it. Burnside at once marched the army to Fredericksburg on the Rappahannock, and attacked that impregnable position, occasioning the slaughter of thirteen thousand of his men. He meant to try the same thing over again next day, but his subordinate generals advised the contrary. He had lost the confidence of his army, and at his own request was relieved of the command. "Fighting Joe Hooker" took his place.

§ 35. A New Union Commander Lost Another Campaign.

This was the fifth change in the leadership of the Army of the Potomac. Hooker was a favorite among the men, with a record that inspired confidence. He took hold of the army demoralized by the Fredericksburg disaster, and in a short time brought it into good order. So lax had been its discipline that half or more of its numbers, officers and men, figured at times as absentees; but by April, Hooker had the army ready for work, and began what is known as the Chancellorsville Campaign. Hooker, like Pope, lacked sufficient ability to be a great commander. Lee and Jackson outgeneraled him as they had Pope. A serious physical injury from a cannon-shot disabled him at the very crisis of the battle. With an army not much more than half the size of Hooker's, Lee always managed to have more troops at the fighting points of contact. In ten days he drove Hooker back to his old camps for safety. But in this campaign Stonewall Jackson was killed by the unfortunate fire of his own men. This was an irreparable loss to the Confederacy.

Robert Edward Lee.
Born, 1807; died, 1870.
General Confederate Army: Captain, Mexican War: President, Washington College, Virginia.

§ 36. Vicksburg Fell in the West, and Gettysburg was Won in the East at the Same Time.

Then Lee began his second northern invasion. McClellan had fought Lee at Antietam. Meade, a cautious commander like McClellan, superseded Hooker, and fought Lee

at Gettysburg. In each case Lee, being upon unfamiliar ground, was beaten and forced to retreat. The Gettysburg campaign occurred while the Union army was winning great victories in the West.

Already the agricultural and financial resources of the South were becoming exhausted. Lee had hoped to get abundant supplies for his army from the rich harvests of Maryland and Pennsylvania, and to secure immense sums of money as ransoms for keeping cities from pillage. He even hoped to take Philadelphia and Washington.

§ 37. A Great Battle was Fought at Stone's River.

After the fall of Corinth, Grant went to Memphis, taking Sherman with him to complete the task of opening the Mississippi. Meanwhile General Bragg, who had succeeded Beauregard, planned an invasion of Kentucky, and started north from Chattanooga. Buell, who was holding Tennessee, undertook to repel the invasion at the battle of Perryville, tactically a drawn battle. This occurred forty miles southeast of the city of Louisville, which Bragg greatly desired to capture and plunder. Bragg retreated through Cumberland Gap and thence to Chattanooga, and Buell moved toward Nashville. Later his place was taken by General Rosecrans, who, under the direction of Grant, had accomplished brilliant successes in the battles of Iuka and Corinth. Buell was a good organizer and disciplinarian, but not an energetic or aggressive fighter.

December 31 and January 2, Rosecrans and Bragg fought one of the heaviest battles of the war at Stone's River. More than twenty thousand men were killed and wounded in this engagement. Bragg retired from the field after the second day, and retreated twenty-five miles southward.

§ 38. Grant Undertook the Capture of Vicksburg, a Most Difficult Enterprise.

In November, 1862, Halleck, General-in-Chief at Washington, put all the forces in the Department of the Southwest under the orders of General Grant, and told him to fight the enemy where he pleased. Grant wanted Vicksburg and the Mississippi; but the Confederates had now made Vicksburg one of the strongest military positions in the West, and its capture was a most difficult undertaking.

The Vicksburg Campaign.

Vicksburg was a city set upon a hill about two hundred feet above the river. As seen from the Mississippi on the west, and from the marshes of the Yazoo, which bordered it on the north, the hill was very steep, worn away from below by river currents, by overflows, and by the action of rain and wind, until it had become a precipice, or bluff. Perched upon this bluff, and well fortified, Vicksburg defied assault on the west and north. Grant's first effort against the city was from his base at Holly Springs, Mississippi, but the route was difficult, transportation facilities were bad, and his base of supplies at Holly Springs was captured by a raid of Confederate cavalry. He was obliged to fall back.

Sherman had already been ordered down the river from Memphis to attack Vicksburg, and Grant followed him by the same route.

§ 39. Pemberton was Forced into Vicksburg.

Some thirteen miles above Vicksburg, where the bluffs extend inland to the Yazoo River, is a point called Haines' Bluff. Sherman made a brave effort to get his troops up at this point, but failed; for the bluffs were well defended, and the ascent was almost perpendicular. Thus Grant and Sherman were unsuccessful in their first efforts against Vicksburg. Finally, after trying all methods of approach from the north and west, Grant decided to march his army down the west side of the river, to cross over below the city, and to attempt its capture from the south and east.

It was a difficult route, and Grant's daring plan was not in accord with the ordinary rules of military strategy. He crossed the river forty miles below Vicksburg, cut loose from an insecure base of supplies, and, with a few days' rations, marched to find Pemberton, the Confederate general who was in charge of the defense of Vicksburg. He defeated a part of Pemberton's army at Port Gibson, ten miles inland. In a second battle at Raymond and in a third at Jackson, part of General Joseph E. Johnston's army was worsted and compelled to flee.

Sherman now joined Grant, and a new base of supplies was established. While Sherman tore up the railroads about Jackson, Grant turned westward and defeated Pemberton once at Champion's Hill, and again the next day at the bridge over the Big Black river. Then Pemberton retired into Vicksburg and evacuated Haines' Bluff, since

that point was no longer tenable. Thus was an apparently impossible enterprise successfully begun. In eleven days Grant had marched two hundred miles, had fought five battles against two armies, and had driven Pemberton into Vicksburg.

§ 40. After a Six Weeks' Siege Vicksburg Surrendered.

After two assaults, which failed, Vicksburg was closely besieged, and in six weeks the city was starved out. Pemberton surrendered with over thirty thousand men as pris-

At the Siege of Vicksburg.

oners of war, July 4, 1863. Port Hudson, a strongly fortified position on the river one hundred and twenty-five miles below, surrendered to General Banks with six thousand prisoners. Grant had won the greatest military success of the war. The Confederates had lost over sixty thousand men in defending the Mississippi, and the Confederacy was cut in two. In the language of President Lincoln, "The Father of Waters rolled unvexed to the sea."

The campaign against Vicksburg was over seven months long, and involved the greatest difficulties, but the results well repaid the time and effort. Grant was at once made a Major-General in the regular army, and thereafter was recognized as the most prominent and successful Union leader.

Coincident with this amazing success in the West, the tremendous battle of Gettysburg occurred in the East.

§ 41. The First Day's Fighting at Gettysburg.

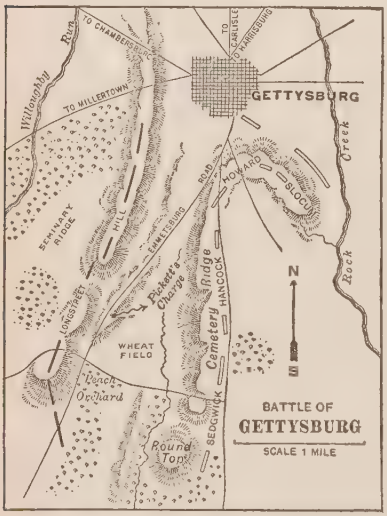
Lee's invasion through Maryland and into Pennsylvania was repulsed at Gettysburg, and the possibility of danger to Washington and Baltimore passed away. There was a preliminary battle on July 1st, in which two corps of the Federal army, under Meade, were driven by the vanguard of Lee's army south through the town of Gettysburg, and forced to occupy at the close of the day a ridge known as Cemetery Hill. At this time of partial disaster, General Hancock rode over from the main body of the army ten miles away. His cheery presence and skillful directions put heart into the troops. Soon afterward, Sickles and Slocum with their divisions arrived, and strengthened the position on the Hill, fortifying Little Round Top under the skillful guidance of Warren, the military engineer.

Lee did not push his success on the first day, but placed his army on Seminary Ridge running parallel with the Federal lines on Cemetery Hill, and about a mile distant. There he waited for Longstreet's corps to come up. Hancock, giving over the command to Slocum, galloped off in the direction of Taneytown, Meade's headquarters. Meeting his own corps a few miles away, he ordered them into easy supporting distance of Slocum, and then hurried to General Meade. On hearing of the critical situation, Meade at once

moved up to the Ridge with his forces; and two corps, commanded by Sykes and Sedgwick, miles away, were sent for with all haste.

§ 42. On the Second Day the Issue was Indecisive.

On the morning of July 2 the two armies faced each other, and a day of terrible slaughter on both sides began.



Meade had under him ninety thousand troops, Lee eighty thousand, the largest army ever brought together by the Confederacy. Meade decided to fight a defensive battle, and had the advantage in position and numbers. If Lee wished to fight, he must begin. After the victories of Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville it was a moral impossibility for Lee to go back without a fight. His plan of battle was simple; he attacked first one end and then the other of the Federal line, with but slight success; on the right he took a part of Meade's defenses, but only to have them recaptured on the morning of July 3. In a little wheatfield of seventy-five acres lay seven thousand dead that awful morning.

§ 43. On the Third Day the Unionists Won the Victory.

On the afternoon of the third day of the battle, General Lee, having been unable to turn either flank of Meade's

army, decided that he must assault its center or withdraw. About one o'clock the decisive hour struck. Lee ordered General Pickett with his Virginia troops to attack the Union center. Fourteen thousand men, the flower of the army, in a front a mile wide, charged across the valley and up Cemetery Hill. First, the Federal artillery wrought havoc among them; then, as they neared the lines, the rifles from front and flank poured out a deadly fire. With fast

At the Crest of Pickett's Charge.

thinning ranks the Confederates pressed on up the slope, and a gallant few broke the first Federal line. The Confederate General Armistead, who was leading the assault, waving his hat on the point of his sword, fell with a bullet through his heart. His men were driven back with

frightful loss, and the fight was over. In this tremendous battle, the greatest of the War, the Federals lost twenty-three thousand men, the Confederates over twenty thousand and six thousand prisoners.

Gettysburg in the East, and Vicksburg in the West, marked the second crisis of the war, and the Fourth of July, 1863, was the most notable in the history of the Republic. To-day a monument marks the spot where the tide of Pickett's charge swept up Cemetery Hill. All the battlefield is marked with monuments.

§ 44. Rosecrans's Campaign upon the Tennessee River.

During the campaign of Grant against Vicksburg, the Army of the Cumberland under Rosecrans had been waiting quietly at Murfreesboro, facing the Confederate Bragg. Grant wished Rosecrans to attack Bragg so as to prevent the sending of re-enforcements to the relief of Vicksburg. Towards July, Rosecrans was compelled to move. He had seventy thousand men, and Bragg at Shelbyville had forty-seven thousand. Rosecrans, with the assistance of Thomas, who commanded his left wing, skilfully maneuvered Bragg out of Shelbyville and Tullahoma, his depot of supplies, and in nine days forced him over the mountains and across the Tennessee to Chattanooga.

Johnny Clem, the Twelve-year Old Drummer Boy, Who to Save Himself from Being Made Prisoner, Shot a Confederate Colonel.

§ 45. Thomas at Chickamauga.

In a rough and mountainous country, Bragg was forced out of Chattanooga by flank movements in August, but later Rosecrans misjudged the Confederate movements. He was taken at a disadvantage in the battle of Chickamauga, and a part of his army was defeated September 20, 1863.

Battle of Chickamauga.

But the left wing, under Thomas, together with several regiments from the center and the right, made a magnificent stand that saved the defeat from becoming a rout, and earned for him the title, "The Rock of Chickamauga." The Federal loss was 12,000, and the Confederate loss somewhat more. Rosecransre tired into Chattanooga; and Bragg, who before the battle had been re-enforced by Longstreet from Virginia, unsuccessfully besieged the town.

§ 46. Grant Took Command at Chattanooga.

A month later Grant was put in command of all the Federal forces between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi. His first official action was to relieve Rosecrans from command of the Army of the Cumberland, and to put Thomas in his place. Sherman, now in command of the Army of the Tennessee, was brought up from Vicksburg; Hooker had been sent from Virginia with re-enforcements for Chattanooga; and Grant himself took command of the combined forces at Chattanooga.

The battle that was fought about Chattanooga was the most picturesque and interesting of the entire war. It is also remarkable as the battle in which five famous Federal generals were engaged, — Grant, Sherman, Thomas, Sheridan, and Hooker. The battle was tactically complicated by rivers, ridges, gorges, and mountains. It was a series of separate engagements covering at least fifty square miles of territory, and lasting three days, November 23, 24, 25.

§ 47. A Great and Critical Victory Was Won.

Hooker reached the upper slopes of Lookout Mountain and drove Bragg's left from every position, fighting his surprising "Battle above the Clouds." Thomas, with twenty-three thousand men in a charging front two and a half miles long, attacked the field-works at the foot of Mission Ridge and captured them; and his enthusiastic troops, not satisfied with that, pressed on and up and swarmed over the top of the Ridge itself, sweeping the Confederates off and down the other side. This charge was the grandest spectacle of all the War.

Sherman struck heavy blows at the north end of the Ridge; Thomas made the great charge; and Grant supervised

the whole. It was a splendid victory for the Federals, purchased at the cost of six thousand men in killed and wounded. At Chattanooga the Federals broke through the Southern defense of the Alleghanies. Henceforth the great operations of the war did not concern the West so much as the East. The turning of the great Alleghany range had begun, and the area of the Confederacy was practically cut down to four States, — Georgia, the Carolinas, and Virginia, of which the first and the last suffered most from war.

§ 48. Grant Took Entire Control of the Union Armies.

In March, 1864, Grant was made Lieutenant-General, in command of all the armies of the United States. He immediately placed Sherman in command of the Armies of the Tennessee, the Cumberland, and the Ohio, — practically all the Federal troops that had been operating in the South and West. The final movements of the War then began. Sherman, gathering his forces, conducted a fine strategic campaign against the Confederate, Joseph Johnston, who had superseded Bragg after the battle of Chattanooga.

§ 49. Sherman Won Atlanta, the Center of the Confederacy.

After engaging Johnston in three terrible battles, at Resaca, Dallas, and Kenesaw Mountain, Sherman threatened Atlanta. The desperate Confederacy then placed Hood in command. It was a change for the worse. Johnston was a fine tactician, Hood a reckless fighter. He made two unsuccessful attacks upon Sherman, and then abandoned Atlanta, which was occupied by the Federal forces September 2, 1864. Since Mobile had been taken by Farragut, in August, the hope of the Confederacy to win in the War was now utterly baseless.

§ 50. The March to the Sea Cut in Two the Remaining Half of the Confederacy.

After the capture of Atlanta, Hood moved northwestward into middle Tennessee. Sherman sent back a part of his army under Thomas to Nashville to resist Hood's northward march. Then, November 15, cutting loose from his base of supplies, he struck out on his famous march "from Atlanta to the Sea" with sixty-two thousand men.

Sherman's March to the Sea.

It was a military adventure of a month, with no enemy in sight, and a rich country to ravage. Sherman's soldiers lived on the fat of the land, and the cattle-pens and hen-roosts within twenty-five miles on each side of the route suffered. Railroads were torn up, bridges were burned, military supplies were captured, houses were ransacked, and

nothing was left behind that could aid an army. December 10, 1864, Sherman arrived at Savannah, and on the 20th, Hardee, the Confederate commander, evacuated the place with his forces and retreated to Charleston. The Confederacy was again cut in two; and the hopelessness of its condition was demonstrated to the world.

§ 51. Thomas Won a Great Victory at Nashville.

Meantime Hood, when he found that Sherman was out of reach, planned to attack Thomas. Hood, who had been checked in his advance by Schofield, had collected an army of about forty thousand men. He attacked Schofield at Franklin where he was defeated in one of the most awful battles of the war. Schofield immediately fell back upon Thomas at Nashville, followed by Hood.

Thomas, who had won Mill Springs and saved Chickamauga, was now to have his grand opportunity; and he took his time in preparing for it. The Washington authorities became anxious, and urged him to action. Thomas calmly waited, and intimated that he would resign if they so wished, but that he would not strike until he was ready. His last wait was for the glare ice to melt, after a heavy sleet storm. Then he moved, just at the time when an order was given to General Logan to go and take his place; but Thomas then made a movement the most sudden, successful, and brilliant of the entire War. Falling upon Hood, December 15 and 16, he outflanked, outmaneuvered, and totally defeated him in a clean-cut battle which cost Hood twenty thousand men, and made of the rest of his army a disorganized, disheartened rabble. This battle practically ended the conflict in the South. Thomas's work was done, his fame as a great general secure.

§ 52. "I will Fight it Out," said Grant.

In March, 1864, Grant faced the problem, which had proved too knotty for all the earlier Union generals in that field, of crushing Lee and the Army of Virginia. He knew well Lee's ability as a strategist and tactician and his genius as a leader of men. He felt that Lee with his knowledge of the country had the advantage, and resolved by direct assaults with his vastly superior forces to wear him out.

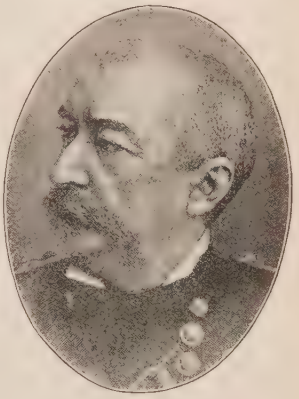
This was the man who as a young lieutenant in the Mexican War had criticised the Mexicans for not finishing their battles. "They begin well," he said. Sixteen years had passed, and Grant now declared, "I will fight it out on this line, if it takes all summer." He made war systematic manslaughter, and by "hammering" finally crushed the Confederacy. Grant was the one great Federal leader who fully realized the enormous resources of the Union and used them. Grant secured all that McClellan asked for and more than he received. The difference between them was that Grant spent rather than saved his soldiers while McClellan tried to avoid bloodshed.

§ 53. Awful Bloodshed Followed in the Virginia Slaughter-pen.

Grant entered Virginia with one hundred and twenty thousand men, and advanced against Lee from Culpeper through the Wilderness to the Chickahominy, fighting the fearful battles of the Wilderness and Spottsylvania, undergoing the disaster at Cold Harbor, which suggests in its character Burnside's blunder and slaughter at Fredericksburg, and losing sixty-four thousand men. Lee lost about half as many. Re-enforcements poured in on both sides. Grant crossed the James river with his army, went around Richmond, and besieged Petersburg.

§ 54. Early and Sheridan Met at Cedar Creek.

During the tedious siege of Petersburg, Lee sent his famous cavalry leader, Early, on a raid through the Shenandoah valley, — that convenient avenue of attack northward. Early rushed through the valley, caused a panic in Washington, which he might have entered, had he been a trifle quicker, raided into Pennsylvania, tried to levy five hundred thousand dollars ransom on the town of Chambersburg, and burned the town because it would not or could not pay. Then he returned into the Shenandoah with horses and cattle and plunder.



Philip Sheridan.
Born, 1831; died, 1888.
Union General.

This was an exasperating affair, and Grant retaliated by sending Sheridan into the Shenandoah valley with orders to devastate the whole region, so that the Confederates could no longer use it as a base of supplies. This was a move similar to Sherman's march. Sheridan's army entered the valley at Harper's Ferry, and, moving slowly up to the head, defeated Early's troops in two battles, driving the Confederates out. Then retracing his course, Sheridan carried off all the cattle and sheep, burned seventy grist-mills and two thousand barns filled with hay and grain, and left the beautiful valley as bare as a desert.

Not long after this exploit, Lee ordered Early with re-enforcements to re-occupy the valley, which, though a waste, still had value as a military avenue. On the 19th of

October, Early surprised the Federals at Cedar Creek, while Sheridan was twenty miles away beyond Winchester. This was the occasion of the famous ride of Sheridan to the battlefield where by his valor and leadership upon the field rout was turned to a victory celebrated in song and story.

§ 55. The War was Being Wound to its Close.

Early's army was now wrecked. He had lost almost twenty-five thousand men in killed, wounded, and captured. The Federals had lost somewhat less than twenty thousand, and victory had followed their banners. Both Sheridan and Early now returned to the field of operations about Richmond and Petersburg, while Sherman was making his way upward through the Carolinas, where he defeated Johnston several times. This march north from Charleston was one of great hardship, through swamps and across rivers in a thinly settled country. The end of the War appeared to be near at hand. Lee's army

was wasting away. Some deserted, more died, or were disabled; and the South in 1865 could furnish no more recruits. There were not even boys or old men, out of whom to make an army. Nor were there guns and powder with which to equip them for battle. The people of the South recognized sooner than their leaders that the War was practically over.

§ 56. Lee Surrendered the Brave Army of Virginia, April 9, 1865.

Lee could expect no further re-enforcements, and had no

Surrender of General Lee to General Grant.

place of retreat except the mountains. His commissariat was in a condition of collapse, and the financial means of carrying on the struggle were completely exhausted. The South, in fact, was worn out, and crushed rather than defeated. On April 9, 1865, Lee, seeing that escape into the mountains was useless, surrendered the heroic Army of Virginia to Grant at Appomattox Court House.

§ 57. Other Surrenders Followed.

On April 26, Johnston surrendered to Sherman at Goldsboro, North Carolina. In April, General Wilson with fourteen thousand cavalry took Montgomery, Alabama, and Columbus, and Macon, Georgia, destroying the Confederate manufacturies of war-supplies; and on May 10 captured Jefferson Davis, the fugitive President of the fallen Confederacy. On the 4th of May, General Taylor surrendered all the remaining Confederate forces east of the Mississippi, and on the 26th General Kirby Smith surrendered all remaining forces west of the great river. It is said that the last shot of the War of Secession was fired in Texas near Palo Alto on the Rio Grande, on the 13th of May, 1865. There the Mexican War had begun.

§ 58. The Navy Effectually Blockaded Southern Ports.

Throughout this great struggle the navy rendered efficient and important service. To Farragut was due the taking of New Orleans in 1862, and the victory in Mobile Bay in August, 1864. These were heroic exploits. Farragut, lashed in the rigging of his flagship, the *Hartford*, the little man making there an immortal picture of heroism, entered Mobile Bay at the head of his fleet of four ironclads and thirteen wooden ships, and attacked the three forts and seven Confederate vessels. In ten days' fighting he succeeded in sealing up that port against English blockade-runners. In December, 1864, and January, 1865, David D. Porter, son of the famous David Porter of the War of 1812, who swept the Pacific of British whalers, succeeded in capturing Fort Fisher at Wilmington, North Carolina, the last harbor of the Confederacy open to the blockade-runners.

§ 59. The Navy Destroyed the Confederate Privateers.

To the navy was due the starving out of the Confederacy through its inability to get military supplies from Europe. To it was due also the destruction of the Confederate privateers built in British ports, and manned chiefly by British sailors. In 1864, Captain Winslow, in the *Kearsarge*, destroyed off Cherbourg, France, the last great privateer, the *Alabama*, Semmes of Maryland, commander. It was estimated that each of two of these privateers, the *Alabama* and the *Shenandoah*, destroyed over six million dollars' worth of American shipping and cargoes, while the *Florida* destroyed over three million dollars' worth.

The great War of Secession was indeed chiefly a land war, but the reason why it was such a war was the immediate and almost complete supremacy of the Union navy upon the seas. The Confederate Commissioners in Europe were systematic in their efforts to embarrass the operations of the Union navy and of ordinary commerce, constantly hoping sooner or later to win international recognition of the independence of the Confederacy. Had this not been prevented by the diplomacy of the National Government, the seas would soon have swarmed with privateers and warships as well, for such recognition would have unlocked the treasures of European bankers eager for the great gains of war-loans and of privateering.

§ 60. Union Prisoners Suffered Horribly in Confederate Pens.

It is not possible to complete the military story of this great War without comment upon the darker aspects of the fearful struggle. Upon both sides prisoners were taken. The Confederacy — almost from the first in need of money, and from the very first conscious of the fact that all its strength

of fighting-men must be sent to the front — maintained prisons and prison-pens that were often scenes of horror.

Exterior Libby Prison.

The most famous of the prisons was Libby Prison in Richmond, Virginia, an old tobacco warehouse in which at times as many as three thousand men were kept at once. The most infamous of the prison-pens was at Andersonville, Georgia, where a twenty-seven-acre field was palisaded and guarded by the Confederates. There in August, 1864, were confined thirty-three thousand prisoners. So grossly inhuman was their treatment, that when the war was over the National Government tried and hanged the superintendent.

Interior Libby Prison.

The only bright spots in the dark story of these prisons are the occasional escapes. From Andersonville, by successful tunneling, an average of one man in every two thousand prisoners finally escaped. More than a quarter of all the prisoners died there. Thousands on thousands who survived their confinement in these prisons were hopelessly wrecked in health.

The defenses of the needless severity of the treatment of Union prisoners were "military necessity," the desire to awaken terror of the Confederacy, the hope of reducing the number of men to be exchanged, the poverty of the South, in the baser men the evil spirit of revenge, and in the worst and last days of the dying Government, the knowledge that Union prisoners were few and Confederate prisoners were many. Even exchanges would have left no Union and many Confederate soldiers in prison.

§ 61. There was and is Little Personal Ill-will between the Blue and the Gray.

Upon the Union side, well supplied as it was with money and merchandise, the war was conducted more mercifully. There were nurses to care for the wounded soldiers in good hospitals. Prisons were decently maintained. Competent medical and surgical attendance was usually near at hand. As far as war could be humane in the years 1861–1865, at that stage of medical knowledge, the war was humane. This was equally true upon the actual fields of conflict, on the Confederate as well as the National side. In times of truce the "Yankees," "the Blue" and the "Johnnies," "the Gray," exchanged food, water, whiskey, and tobacco. It was this mutual kindness of the soldier "boys" that prevented "hard feeling" from continuing long after the War, and led finally to the general restoration of fellowship North and South.

§ 62. Summary of Results.

On both sides it had been a war of the youth of the land. In its later years half of the "men" of the armies, North and South, were not yet twenty one years old. The average age of the soldiers of Hood's army in the summer of

1864 was but eighteen years. Throughout the War most of the generals were young men: Hood was but thirty-three years of age in 1864. There were brigadier generals under thirty, colonels and majors under twenty-five, and captains too young to vote. The North had many recruits from foreign immigrants, and enlisted after the Emancipation Proclamation over a hundred thousand colored soldiers.

The War cost the Nation approximately the lives of one million men, rather more in the North than in the South. From her military population the South lost nearly one-half, and the North about one-ninth. Never was a more gallant fight than that of the South. The Confederates fought until there was nothing more with which to fight. When the War was over, it was thoroughly over.

ARMY ORGANIZATION AND OFFICERS.

Companies 10 (more or less), each of 100 men (or less) form a Regiment.
Regiments, 3–5 (more or less) form a Brigade.
Brigades, 2 (or more) form a Division (if any).
Divisions, 2 (or more) form a Corps.
Corps, 2 (or more, if any) form an Army.
Captains (and lieutenants) command Companies.
Colonels (and lieutenant-colonels and majors) command Regiments.
Generals (Brigadier) command Brigades.
Generals (major) command Corps, Divisions, and Armies.

SECESSION.

The "Lost Cause" was not the cause of slavery but of State sovereignty, the right to secede from the Union when dissatisfied. Four-fifths of the Confederate soldiers owned no slaves. Historically their opinion was a mistake, for the Union of the people preceded the formation of the original thirteen States out of the former Colonies, as Lincoln argued in the first inaugural. Geographically the opinion meant constant warfare upon this Continent. Philosophically, nullification and secession, the ideas of Calhoun, greatest of Southern statesmen, meant anarchy, for if a State may secede, why not a County? If a County may secede, why not a Town? If a Town may secede, why may not an individual be a law unto himself?

SUMMARY BY YEARS.

1861–1865.

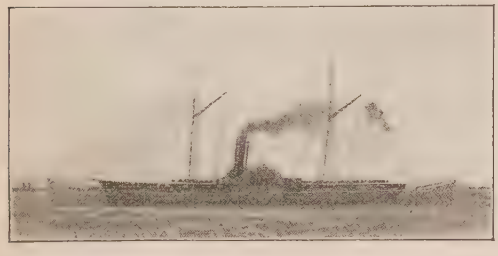
General Statement.

The War of Secession lasted a few days less than Lincoln's Administration, which began with his first inauguration, March 4, 1861, and ended with his death, April 14, 1865. The War began with the fall of Fort Sumter, April 12, 1861, and ended with the surrender at Appomattox, April 9, 1865.

Lowe's War Balloon for Observation.

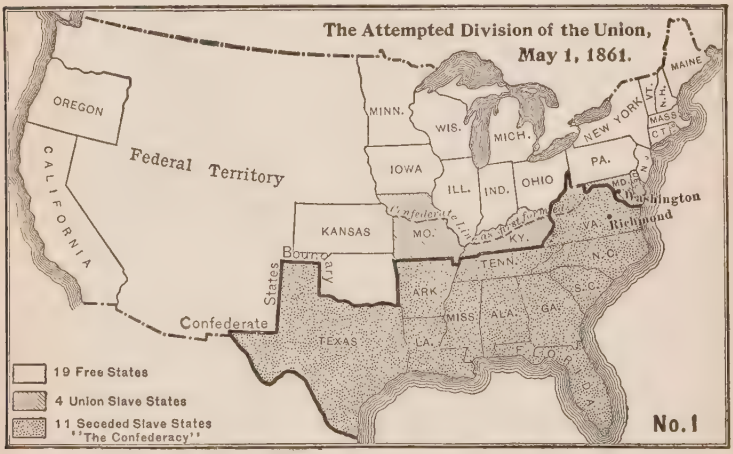
1861.

In the first year of the War the most important battle was that at Bull Run, July 21, a Secessionist victory. In that year the North was aroused to the surprising and unexpected fact that the South meant to maintain slavery, if needs be, by setting up an independent government and supporting it by force of arms. The South was equally surprised that the North intended to resist disunion even at the sacrifice of property and life. Neither side had expected that the other would fight vigorously for its opinions. Each side was equally surprised


Geneseo, a Gunboat, Protected by Network against Torpedoes.

before the year was over, that so great a conflict was actually in progress, since each expected to defeat the other with ease. The South began the fighting.

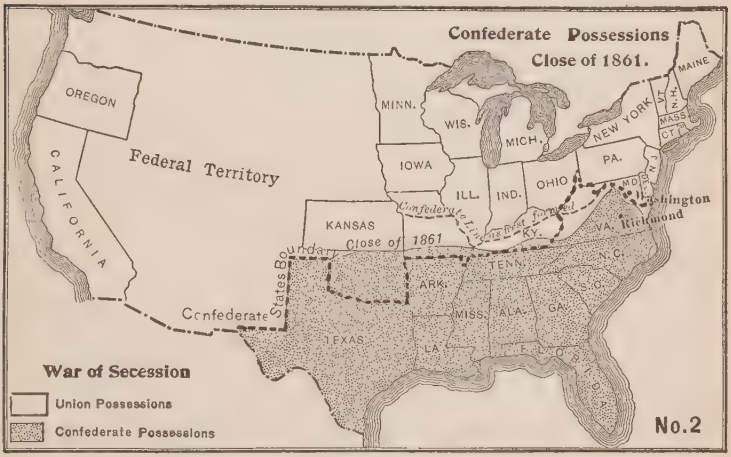
The Confederacy in this year lost Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri, slaveholding States whose support of the slaveholders' cause had been confidently relied upon by the Southern leaders. The South lost also West Virginia, which seceded from Virginia, and nearly lost eastern



Tennessee. On the other hand, the South had gained the prestige of winning the greatest battle of the year. Even in this first year of the War, the blockade of the Southern seaports by the Union navy had reduced the exportation of cotton from $200,000,000 to but $42,000,000 in value. Upon the cotton exports the South had relied for its chief financial resources to carry on the war.

At the close of 1861 there were nearly 600,000 soldiers upon the Northern side, and 350,000 upon the Southern.

The year was characteristically one devoted to the formation and drilling of armies. In all our records the numbers of enrolled soldiers upon the Union side include the men in the supply and labor departments; while upon the Southern side, since most of these workers were Negroes, they were not counted in the armies, — a fact carefully to be remembered in all battle reports.

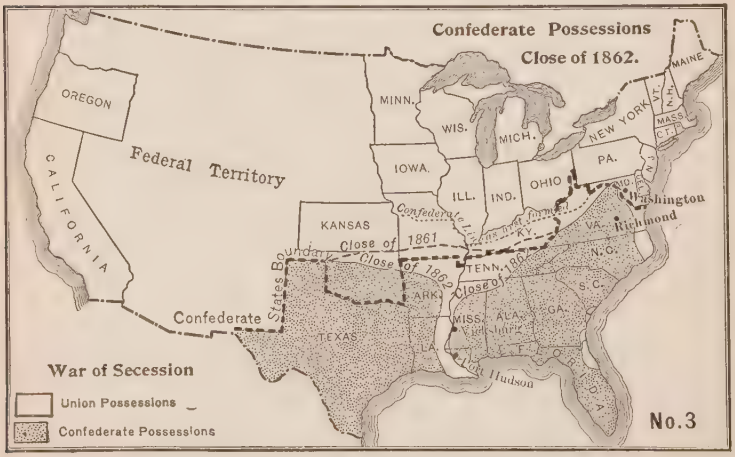


1862.

The year was one of steady fighting from beginning to end. It saw the right of the Confederate line broken at Mill Springs, January 19, by General Thomas, and the first great Union victory, by General Grant, at Fort Donelson, February 16. It saw also the astonishing naval battle between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*, at Hampton Roads. This was a most reassuring Union victory; and the naval battle at New Orleans, April 25, under Farragut, was also a brilliant exploit upon the Union side. June 26 saw the

beginning of the seven days' battles in Virginia covering McClellan's retreat. The second battle of Bull Run, August 29–30, was, like the first, a Union disaster. September 17 was fought the awful battle of Antietam, favorable to the North. The horrible carnage at Fredericksburg took place December 13. The Union Army of the Potomac continued drilling as its chief occupation for the year.

Though they failed to demolish the forts at Charleston, the Union patrol fleet reduced the exportation of cotton to but $4,000,000. After this year the South was forced to depend entirely upon itself for all its financial, agricultural, and industrial supplies.

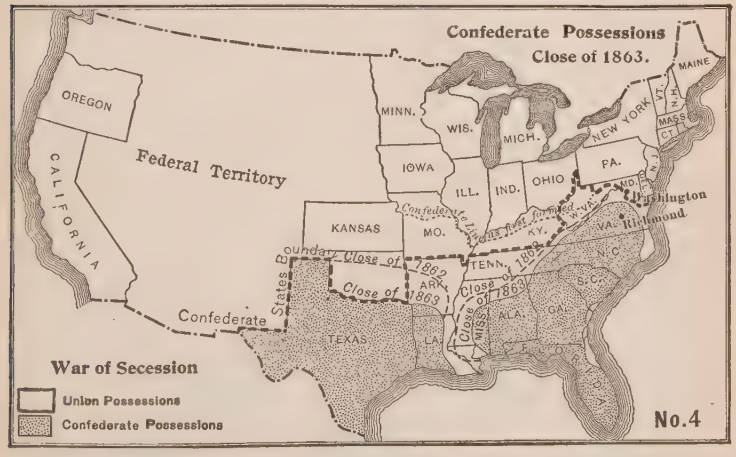


Taken as a whole, the year was favorable to the Union cause, though final victory was not yet assured. The Confederacy found its area reduced through losing control of the Mississippi by the fall of Memphis. At the close of 1862 there were over 900,000 men bearing arms on the

Union side, and over 400,000 on the Confederate side. This year clearly showed that the fighting was to be offensive upon the part of the North, and defensive upon the part of the South. It was also plain that the Confederacy would not surrender until it was completely exhausted.

1863.

The year 1862 ended and the year 1863 began with the great strategic battle of Murfreesboro in Tennessee, which forced the Confederates to retreat. In May the Confederates were successful at Chancellorsville; on July 1, 2, and 3, Gettysburg was won by the Union Army; and on the 4th, Vicksburg was taken. On September 19–20, the Con-

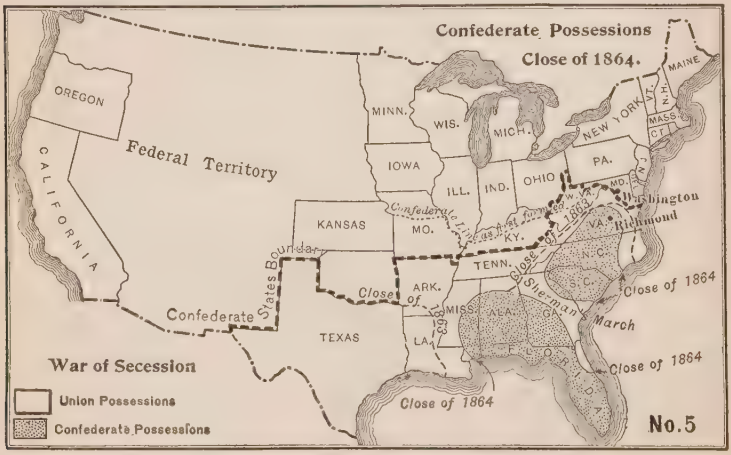


federates won the field at Chickamauga; but as a result, Rosecrans' army entered Chattanooga and held it. On November 23–4–5, Bragg was defeated there and retreated to Dalton. December 4, the Confederate siege of Knoxville, Tennessee, was raised by the defeat of Longstreet.

Looking back we now see that the victories at Gettysburg and Vicksburg assured the final victory to the North. Yet the battles that followed the fall of Vicksburg saw several times as many men killed as fell in all the preceding years of the War. The great achievement of the year was the complete opening of the Mississippi river. The battle of Gettysburg is commonly considered the greatest military engagement in the New World. It put an end to the hope of the Southerners that they might win in the War by some brilliant stroke.

1864.

Like 1863, the year 1864 witnessed tremendous battles rather than only small engagements. The forces on each



side had consolidated into great armies. In Virginia occurred the Battles of the Wilderness, May 5 and 6; Spotsylvania Courthouse, May 23–25; Cold Harbor, June 3; Petersburg, July 30;—all fierce and bloody engagements,

with indecisive results. South of the Appalachians Sherman pushed forward his invasion, winning the battle of Atlanta July 22, and the city six weeks later, and taking Savannah December 21. On October 19 occurred the two battles of Winchester and Cedar Creek. December 15–16 witnessed Thomas's splendid victory for the North at Nashville. In this same year there took place two naval events of importance. On August 5, Farragut seized Mobile Bay and several Confederate vessels. On June 19, the steam frigate *Kearsarge*, off the coast of France, disabled and sank the Confederate privateer *Alabama*.

1865.

The first four months of the year 1865 saw the struggle which had begun in northeastern Virginia, end there.

March 21 the Union forces won a victory at Bentonville, and Johnston surrendered to Sherman a month later. April 2, Grant, with an army of one hundred thousand, defeated Lee's fifty thousand at Five Forks, and Richmond, the

Capital of the Confederacy, surrendered. Grant's terms of surrender to Lee at Appomattox, April 9, were as conciliatory as his terms to Buckner at Fort Donelson had been harsh.

1861 to 1865.

The American Civil War, or as it is more properly called, the War of Secession, was the greatest domestic war in the history of the world. It witnessed more than eighteen hundred military engagements, in none of which were less than a thousand men engaged, and in many of which more than one hundred thousand were engaged at one time. A map of the War that showed by a dot the location of each of these engagements would include the following States: Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, Kentucky, Missouri, and every State south of these. In eastern Virginia the map would be black.

The Causes of Success and Defeat.

At the beginning of the War certain advantages were with the South: The defensive position, knowledge of the country, far greater popular skill in the military arts of shooting and of tactics, solid popular support of the cause, a perfectly reliable body of working Negroes, who needed no money and very small supplies, a long preparation of the social mind for the enterprise, and a common readiness to die for their convictions.

The Union won for these reasons: Several times as many people from whom to get soldiers, far better and greater manufacturing and agricultural resources, the prestige of being the existing National Government, the sympathy of English and French working-people with the free-labor wage-service system and their desire to help the North and

West free the slaves of the South, thus with Queen Victoria's help preventing their Governments from recognizing the Confederacy, the presence North and West of millions of immigrants who understood the idea of a Nation but not the idea of a State, and a wiser Government at the Capital.

Results of the War.

1. Complete overthrow of the political leadership of the Southerners in national affairs, never to be re-established for sectional reasons.

2. Disappearance of the relation of political and legal inequality between man and man, and the triumph of the "free labor" principle that all men have equal rights before the law. Democracy does not permit the relation of master and slave, which is mediæval feudalism, not modern republicanism. The Negro in his cabin must be as free before the law as the man of English blood.

A Negro Cabin of the Better Kind.

3. Final settlement of the question whether States may or may not secede, by the decision of arms to the effect that they cannot unless they can defeat the National Government. But unsuccessful rebellion is not treason.

The War was not a Civil War in the ordinary meaning of the term civil. It was not a war between citizens. It was not a revolution, for it was not an attempt of the people to overthrow one government in order to establish

another. It was not a War between the States, for New York and Georgia were not engaged in fighting each other. It was a War of Secession; that is, an effort by one section of a nation to withdraw from the government of the whole. Successful rebellion is revolution: successful secession is patriotism. The operations of the Union armies were not "invasions," but "police" efforts to recover seceded regions. They were aggressive in form but defensive in spirit: as General Sherman said in his brilliant style to the Southerners who objected to his march, "If you do not like war, why do not you and your relatives stop fighting?"

The War of Secession was carried on with railroads and steamships to move troops and supplies, with telegraph lines to convey information rapidly, with field-surgeons and hospitals to care for the sick and the wounded. In number of combats, in range of territory covered by its operations, in number of soldiers engaged, in its cost, and in its length of duration, taken all together, it was by far the greatest war in human history. A war is the supreme test of a civilization: testing its strength, vitality, morals, wealth, culture, and courage. The outcome of this fearful conflict was for the elevation of humanity. A great Nation was maintained and solidified, and cleansed of its worst evil, the enslavement of men to men. Its cost was more than five thousand dollars for every slave set free, ten times the average value. When men learn to reason, wars will be no more.

These are not unprofitable inquiries, whether if Albert Sidney Johnston had not been killed, but rather Sherman in his stead, and not Jackson but Sheridan, the War would have ended as soon as it did; and whether if our President had been not the patient, far-seeing, strong-willed, logical

and popular Lincoln, but a weaker man such as the brilliant but unsafe Davis, whom indeed the Confederacy chose by but one majority, six States voting for Davis and five for Toombs, the War would have ended as it did. The greatest man of the South was not the President of the Confederacy, but General Robert E. Lee, who declined the command of the Union Army not because of belief in slavery or even in State sovereignty, but because of affection for his kin and friends. The greatest man of the North was President Abraham Lincoln. To him the South and the Union owe the final and right ending of this immortal conflict, which makes a most important chapter in the history of mankind.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. What were the causes of the War of Secession?
2. Compare the operations of the War, East and West.
3. What was the opinion of Toombs regarding the War?
4. Discuss the fall of Fort Sumter and the results.
5. Discuss the border slave-States.
6. Give an account of the first battle of Bull Run and results.
7. Discuss early military operations about Island No. 10.
8. Discuss Mill Springs and Fort Donelson.
9. Give an account of the battle of Pittsburg Landing (Shiloh).
10. Discuss the capture of New Orleans.
11. Narrate the engagement between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*.
12. Discuss McClellan's advance upon Richmond, and the retreat.

13–14–15–16. Discuss the battles at Antietam Creek, Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, and Stone's River.

17. Give an account of the Vicksburg campaign.
18. Give an account of the battle of Gettysburg.
19. Discuss the Chattanooga campaign.
20. Give an account of Sherman's march to the sea.
21. Give an account of the battle of Nashville.
22. Give an account of the final campaigns in Virginia.
23. Discuss Confederate privateering.
24. What were the results of the War?
25. Summarize the War by years.

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Hart's *Contemporaries*, Vol. IV., pp. 228–444 : The facts of War.
Hart's *Source Book*, pp. 299–342.
Schouler's *History of the United States*, Vol. VI.
Swinton's *Battles of the Civil War.*
Grant's *Memoirs.* Sherman's *Memoirs.*
Bowman and Irwin's *Sherman and His Campaigns.*
Burgess's *Civil War and the Constitution.*
Brown's *The Lower South :* Resources of the Confederacy.
Hay and Nicolay's *Abraham Lincoln : A History.*
Century's *Battles and Leaders of the Civil War.*
Scribner's *Campaigns of the Civil War.*
Dodge's *A Bird's Eye View of the Civil War.*
Greeley's *The American Conflict.*
Official Records of the War of the Rebellion.
Davis's *Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government.*
Lossing's *Field Book of the Civil War.*
Tenney's *Military and Naval History of the Rebellion.*
Comte de Paris's *History of the Civil War in America.*
Headley's *The Great Rebellion.*
Victor's *History of the Southern Rebellion.*
Draper's *History of the American Civil War.*
McClellan's *McClellan's Own Story.*
Badeau's *Military History of U. S. Grant.*
Boynton's *History of the Navy during the Rebellion.*
Mahan's *The Navy during the Civil War.*
Long's *Memoirs of Robert E. Lee.* Also Cooke's *Life of Lee.*
Gordon's *Reminiscences of the Civil War.*
Rhodes's *History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850.*

The list of references might be multiplied many times in length, for the War of Secession already presents an immense historical and romantic literature of its own.

TOPICS FOR INQUIRY OR DISCUSSION.

1. The careers during the War of : —

Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, McClellan, Meade, Thomas, Hooker, Rosecrans, Butler, Halleck, Burnside, Hancock, Slocum, McClernand, Schofield, Porter, Farragut, Foote, Lee, A. S. Johnston, J. E. Johnston, Beauregard, Kirby Smith, Jackson, Early, Wheeler, Longstreet, Hill, Pemberton, Stuart, Hood, Morgan, Prentiss, Forrest, Bragg.

2. Further Study of the Greatest Battles : Shiloh, Vicksburg, Gettysburg, Nashville.

3. Study of Other Battles : — Chancellorsville, Chattanooga, etc.

4. History of the Navy during the War.

5. The Confederate *Rams :* The Union *Monitors.*

6. Preparation of a Chronology of the War.

7. Lincoln as a Military and Naval Commander-in-Chief.

8. Davis as a Military Commander-in-Chief.

9. History of Individual Regiments.

10. The Battlefields as National Parks.

11. The Well-Planned Battles : *e.g.*, Lee at Antietam, McClellan at Malvern Hill, etc., etc.

12. Railroads and Telegraph Service.

13. Escapes of Prisoners.

14. Costs of War.

15. Social Effects of Battles upon Neighborhoods : *i.e.*, Gettysburg, 1865, and now.

ESSENTIAL DATES.

1861–1865. The War of Secession.

1861. April 12, Sumter is fired upon.

1861. The Union Army is defeated at Bull Run.

1862. The Monitor compels the Merrimac to retire.

1862. After Antietam, Lee returns to Virginia.

1862. The preliminary Emancipation Proclamation is published.

1863, Jan. 1. Proclamation of Emancipation of slaves in seceded States.

1863. Vicksburg is taken by the army of Grant.

1863. At Gettysburg Meade defeats Lee in the greatest battle of the War.

1863. Grant wins the Chattanooga campaign.

1864. Sherman's army marches from Atlanta to the Sea.

1865. Thomas defeats Hood at Nashville.

1865, April 9. Grant receives Lee's surrender at Appomattox Court House.

1865, April 14. Assassination of President Abraham Lincoln.

Note 1. — Certain battles are dealt with in the text upon a scale of length, permitting considerable detail, not because they were more important than other battles, but because, being important, they afford opportunities to develop typical plans of military strategy and tactics.

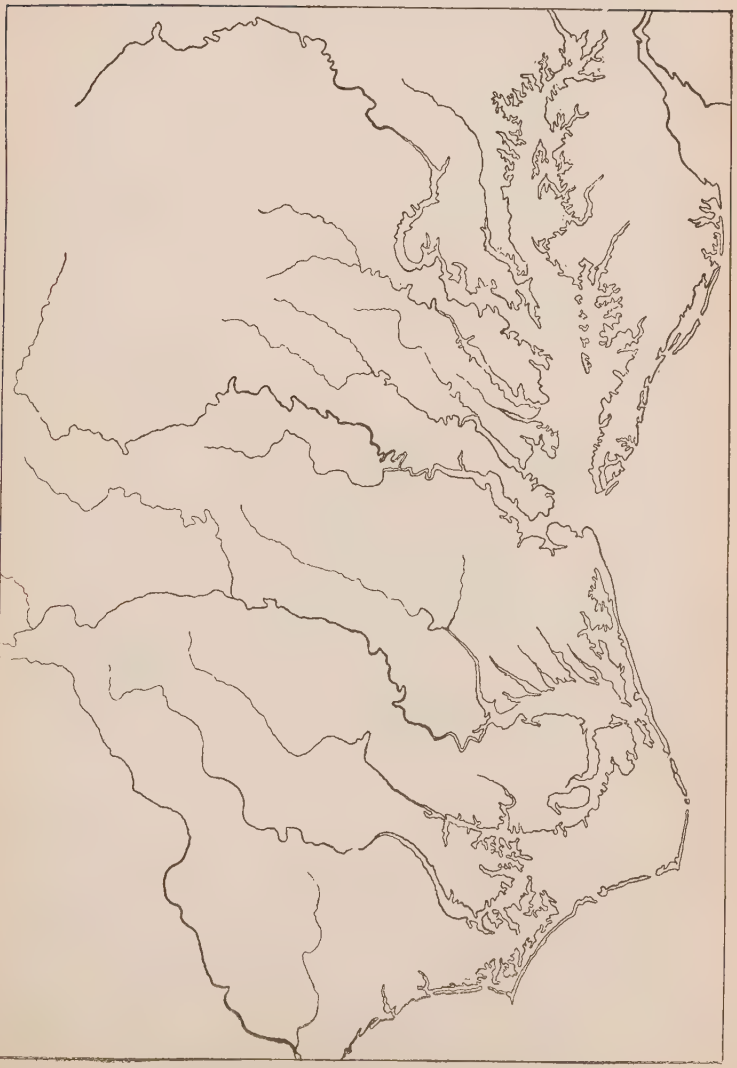
Note 2. — There are innumerable interesting geographical correlations to investigate : *e.g.*, Malvern Hill was the home of Nathaniel Bacon, Virginia's early patriot.

Outline Map of the Region of the War of Secession.

1. Draw on blackboard and on paper an outline map.
2. Locate the important battles : military and naval.
3. Mark dotted lines to indicate the campaigns.
4. Draw the routes of Sherman's March to the Sea and his March North through the Carolinas.
5. Name the States : locate the important cities.
6. Treat similarly to the above 1–5 the map opposite.
7. Locate the Capitals of the United States and of the Confederate States.

NOTE. — Upon one outline map put only a few details. A series of such maps is far better than one map so crowded as to be illegible.

SUGGESTION. Collect clippings of battle-maps. See Suggestions to Teachers, pp. 20–22.



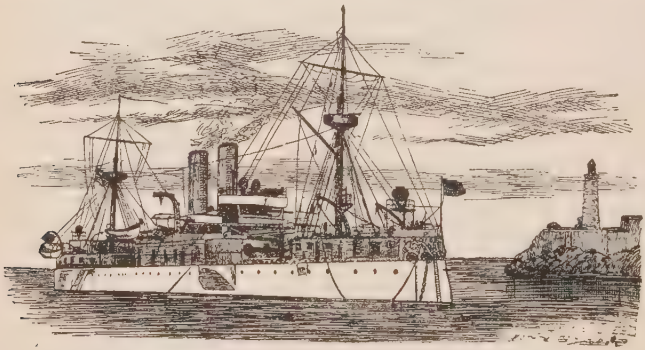
Scene of the Virginia Peninsular Campaigns.

CHAPTER IV.

THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR.

§ 1. The Cause and the Occasion of the War.

In the fall of 1897 conditions in Cuba, where Spain had long mercilessly oppressed a people of her own blood, became critical. The colony was in a state of insurrection, as usual. But the insurrection now threatened to succeed under the leadership of Maximo Gomez, the rebel general. To establish a reign of terror, the Spanish army had concentrated in prison-camps hundreds of thousands of country



The Maine Entering Havana Harbor, Morro Castle on the Right.

people, who were starving to death. The story of their awful suffering, with pictures from photographs, was spread by the newspapers broadcast through our sympathizing land.

Suddenly, in February, our battleship the *Maine*, resting quietly in Havana harbor, was blown up by a submarine mine explosion. This showed conclusively the intolerable nature of Spanish rule. Congress resolved to order Spain out of Cuba and passed these resolutions, viz.,

1. That the people of the island of Cuba are, and of right ought to be, free and independent.

2. That it is the duty of the United States to require that Spain give up Cuba and to withdraw all military forces from the island.

3. That the President is directed and empowered to use all the forces of the United States, and to call out the militia in order to carry out these resolutions.

4. That the United States disclaims any intention of control over said island except for the pacification thereof, and asserts its determination, when that is accomplished, to leave the government and control of the island to its people.

§ 2. Ample Funds were Provided.

On April 23, 1898, Congress declared that war with Spain was a fact. The Secretary of the Treasury was at once authorized to borrow $200,000,000. When the loan was advertised, more than seven times that amount was subscribed for.

A war revenue Act was also passed, which revived many features of the internal revenue system of the War of Secession, among them stamp taxes on legal documents of transfer and on bank checks, with one new and very productive device, — the taxing of stock sales in all the Exchanges of the country.

§ 3. A Naval War Began with a Great Victory.

The Spanish, in the matter of war-ships, were thought to be equal with the Americans. In number and size of ships the two navies did not greatly differ.

Upon the declaration of war, Commodore George Dewey, in command of the United States Asiatic squadron lying at

Hong Kong, was ordered to proceed to the Philippine Islands, and to capture or destroy the Spanish fleet at Manila. The Navy Department, with commendable foresight, had been making preparations for such a move, and Dewey was ready for the 600-mile trip to the Philippines with his fleet of nine ships. Reaching his destination in three days, he entered the Bay at night, running the batteries at the entrance as Farragut at Mobile Bay had

Mouth of Pasig River, Manila.

taught him to do. Steaming slowly up towards the city of Manila, he discovered by daybreak the Spanish fleet of ten vessels drawn up under the guns of the shore batteries at Cavite, a small town a few miles out of the city. There were six war-ships in the American fleet, — the flag-ship *Olympia*, a protected cruiser of 6,000 tons, the *Baltimore*, the *Boston*, and the *Raleigh*, all second-class protected cruisers of about 3,000 tons each. These ships carried

eight-inch guns and other rapid-fire guns of smaller caliber. In addition to these were two gunboats, — the *Concord* and *Petrel*, of about 1,200 tons each.

The Spanish fleet consisted of ten ships, — three second-class cruisers not unlike the American, three iron cruisers, one wooden cruiser, and three gunboats. In a few hours this entire fleet was destroyed and the shore batteries were silenced by the superior gunnery of Dewey's ships. Not one of the United States fleet was damaged, and not a man killed. Eight only were wounded, all on the *Baltimore*. Such a victory in naval warfare was never heard of before. Hundreds of the Spaniards were killed, and their vessels were all battered, burnt, blown up, or sunk. This demonstrated the unfitness of Spain for naval warfare, and her utter inability to cope with the United States upon the sea. It showed also the pitiable weakness of a once great people.

§ 4. Spain Sent Out a Fleet to Hold Cuba and Porto Rico.

The battle of Manila ended three centuries of Spanish misrule in the Philippines, made a world-famed hero of Dewey, and put the United States in the position of a world power just five days after the declaration of war. Meanwhile, President McKinley's call for 125,000 volunteers was being answered with remarkable activity, and in less than one month a formidable army was collected at Tampa, Florida, waiting transportation to Cuba. Meantime, Admiral Cervera and a fleet of four first-class protected cruisers and several supporting ships had left the CapeVerde Islands. Whether the Admiral contemplated a raid on some unprotected portion of our coast, or was heading for Cuba, was unknown. Much useless apprehension

might have been saved had the real truth been known, that Cervera considered himself sent on a hopeless mission, and was glad to find a temporary refuge in the harbor of Santiago from the American fleet under Sampson and Schley. To hold him there securely, young Lieutenant Hobson of the navy, emulating the exploits of Decatur and Somers in Tripoli, and of Cushing when he sank the Confederate *Albemarle*, tried to sink the *Merrimac* as a barrier in Santiago harbor. The obstruction failed, but the heroism endures for all time.

The battleship Oregon was built in San Francisco, 1893, 10,000 tons displacement. Speed, nearly 17 knots an hour Charles E. Clark, Captain, in 1898.

§ 5. The Great Exploit of the Oregon.

Meantime the great battleship *Oregon* had been steaming from the Pacific coast on a 14,500-mile voyage around Cape Horn to re-enforce the Atlantic fleet. It was feared that Cervera's ships might overcome the *Oregon*. But in May she reported safe in South American waters, and ready to go into battle without an hour's repairs. It was a wonderful sea-exploit for her sailors and builders alike.

§ 6. The Spaniards were Defeated in the Land Campaign.

The inadequate preparation and the dilatory outfitting of the army for service were discreditable to the War Department. Confusion and inefficiency marked the management of the camps, of the transports, and of the commissary departments. After much delay, 15,000 troops were landed in Cuba at Daiquiri, sixteen miles south of Santiago, and a brief campaign ensued against the city, during which the Americans won the battle at Las Guasimas, and afterward the brilliant fights at El Caney and at San Juan hill in the outskirts of Santiago, July 2, 1898. It was in the latter charge that Lieutenant-Colonel Theodore Roosevelt won his fame. It was the first campaign in which Spanish and American soldiers ever met. The Spanish troops who fled to Santiago were heard to say, "Instead of retreating when we fired, the Americans came on. The more we fired, the more they advanced. They tried to catch us with their hands."

§ 7. A Second Spanish Fleet was Utterly Destroyed.

July 3, 1898, a few days before the close of the Santiago campaign, Cervera's fleet made an effort to run the blockade and to escape from Santiago to Havana, but the American fleet under Sampson kept a keen lookout for the Spanish ships. They were sighted before reaching the mouth of the harbor. At this hour Admiral W. T. Sampson was a few miles away upon an appointment to meet the commanding General, W. R. Shafter. His presence and his ship, the *New York*, were not needed, however. The fine Spanish cruisers were chased along shore to the westward by the *Brooklyn*, under Commodore W. S. Schley, with the *Oregon*, the *Iowa*, the *Indiana*, and the *Texas*.

The *Maria Teresa*, *Christobal Colon*, *Vizcaya*, and *Oquendo*, the best ships of the Spanish navy, were as quickly destroyed by the superior gunnery of the Americans here as their fellows were in Manila Bay. Hundreds of the Spaniards were killed. Admiral Cervera, with some of his officers, was picked up in a boat, and his burned and

Statue of Columbus at San Juan, Porto Rico.

battered ships were beached at intervals along the coast. The Americans had one man killed and one wounded, both on the *Brooklyn*.

Two weeks after this naval battle General Toral surrendered the city of Santiago, and the war was practically over.

§ 8. Spain Surrendered Her New and Old World Colonies.

General Miles, with an expedition of four thousand men, took possession of Porto Rico in July and August; and a fleet under command of Commodore Watson was getting ready to sail for Spain to bombard her coast towns. With the best part of her navy swept from the ocean, Spain was in no condition for further resistance, and made proposals for peace through the French Ambassador, Jules Cambon, at Washington. A few months later a treaty of peace was signed, in which Spain relinquished all claim to Cuba, and ceded Porto Rico and other small islands in the West Indies, the island of Guam, one of the Ladrones in the Middle Pacific, and the archipelago of the Philippines. The United States agreed to pay $20,000,000 as the value of Spanish public property in the Philippines, and to determine by Act of Congress the civil rights and political status of the native inhabitants of the ceded territories. The American-Spanish War was one of the shortest on record, the period of fighting being less than four months. In view of the wide-reaching results, the losses of the war may be regarded as insignificant.

§ 9. The Weakness of Our Army Administration.

The navy lost one man in battle, the army several hundred. The navy was well managed; but the business administration of the army broke down, and bad management, bad food, and the lack of proper hospital supplies, killed at least several times the number of those who fell in battle. The rations sent to the army in Cuba were the same as those used in the Klondike! A friendly foreign critic who had been through the Turco-Greek war, after his experience

with our army in Cuba remarked that he thought our soldiers fought even better than the Turks, but that on the whole our system of military administration was worse than that of the Greeks.

When the War was over, the Secretary of War resigned, and the head of the commissary department was subsequently suspended from office in consequence of the exposures of maladministration.

Home of Natives in Porto Rico.

§ 10. Summary of Results of the War.

All the results of the War are not yet apparent.

One result was to give the United States international power far beyond that possessed before. This was increased by the successes of our arms and diplomacy in the Chinese troubles, related elsewhere.

Another result was to reunite the North and the South,

and to heal many of the remaining wounds of the War of Secession; for the freedom of Cuba had long been a Southern dream rather than a Northern, and the old veterans of the "Blue" and the "Gray" and their sons and grandsons went to the war together as friends.

A third result was to give us colonial cares and a large population of colored people — the Filipinos — to rule over.

A fourth was to give us the protectorate of Cuba.

In a few words, the Spanish-American War made us a democratic empire.

The important results to Spain were, first: the loss of her Old World and her New World colonies, won for her by the heroism of Columbus and Magellan, and lost by her incompetence to rule them in peace; and, second: her forced return to a study of her serious domestic troubles.

§ 11. The American World-Empire.

We had scarcely solved the problem of peace with our Indian wards, when the new and greater problem of the Filipinos came to us as the result of the War of 1898. There are now three different respects in which the United States is a world-empire.

First, we own an immense region into which have come millions of immigrants, our ancestors and our fellow-citizens, from many different races and nations. We are a world-people, a new vast composite nation, an empire trying the unique experiment of welcoming strangers, not fighting them.

Second, we are a colonial power, a nation ruling dependencies and protecting our neighbors. This is empire in the old sense. We have gathered new regions — Florida,

Louisiana, California, Alaska, and all the rest — under the Stars and Stripes.

Third, we are an international power, whose opinion must be taken before other nations may act without peril. To what greatness we may yet grow in the leadership of the world depends partly upon the continuance of our progress in civilization and culture, and partly upon the time and the land where we first meet the effective opposition of another people.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. Give an account of the Pacific Ocean struggles.
2. Discuss the land-campaign in Cuba.
3. Give an account of the Atlantic Ocean struggles.
4. Discuss the administration of the American army.
5. Summarize the results of the War.

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Roosevelt's *Rough Riders.*

Lives of Roosevelt and of Dewey.

The Magazines, Weekly and Daily Papers of the Year 1898. Files may be seen in Public Libraries.

The International Year Book, 1898.

Halstead's *History of American Expansion.*

Andrews's *The United States in Our Times.*

Brown's *History of the United States since the Civil War.*

ADDITIONAL TOPICS FOR INQUIRY OR DISCUSSION.

1. President McKinley's Opposition to Declaring War.
2. The Cost of Freeing Cuba.
3. Grant's Ideas as to Cuba.
4. The Wisdom of Retaining the Philippines.
5. Porto Rico and the Porto Ricans.
6. The Education of the Filipinos.
7. Imports and Exports of the Colonial Trade.

IMPORTANT DATES.

1898, May 1. Naval victory at Manila.

1898, July 3. Naval victory at Santiago.

PART SIX.

THE PROGRESS OF AMERICAN CIVILIZATION.

CHAPTER I.

SCIENCE AND INDUSTRY.

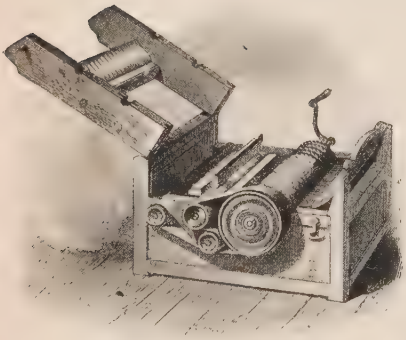
§ 1. Cities and People a Century Ago.

A CENTURY ago nine-tenths of the people of the United States lived within two hundred miles of the Atlantic coast, and the occupation of most of them was agriculture. We had few cities at that time, of which only five had a population of over 10,000 each. In 1800 Philadelphia stood at the head with about 70,000 inhabitants; New York second with 60,000; Baltimore third with 26,000; Boston fourth with 24,000; and Charleston fifth with 19,000. New Orleans was sixth with 8,500, and there were but four more towns with over 5,000 people, Albany, Richmond, Providence, and Hartford.

The westward movement of population had extended into Kentucky, Tennessee, and Ohio. But western New York was a wilderness, and Syracuse, Rochester, and Buffalo were not on the maps. The nation was distinctly agricultural, with farmers in the North, and planters in the South. Besides these agriculturists were the numerous fishermen and whalers of New England, and the sailors of all the ports of the Atlantic coast.

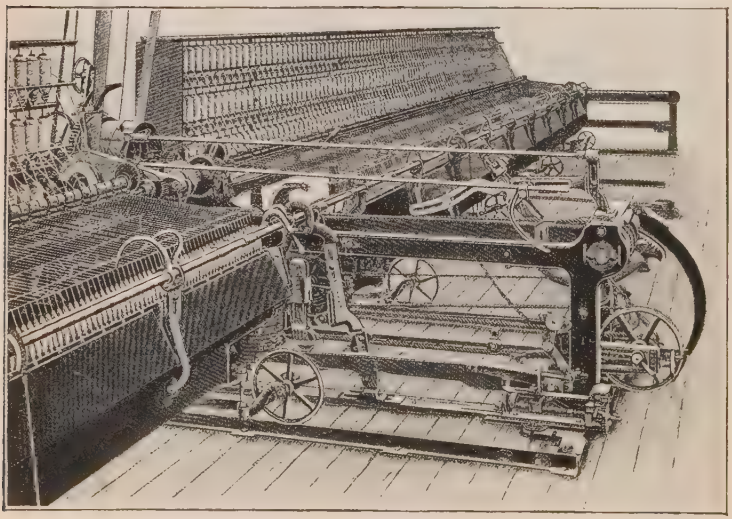
The entire population was about 7,000,000, of whom it is estimated that scarcely five in a hundred were foreign-born. Families were large and family ties were close as in the early colonial days.

§ 2. Cotton Machinery.



Whitney's Cotton Gin.
Invented upon the Farm of General Nathaniel Greene.

The independent and self-supporting life of the farm continued to be the mainstay of our people without much change until the era of coal, steam, and factories was well under way, 1840. The invention of the cotton gin by Eli Whitney in 1794 was the most important event of industrial life in the early days of our nation. The separation of the cotton



Spinning Loom.

fiber from the seed, which had been a hand-picking process, slow and costly, was now effected by machinery that increased the efficiency of labor a hundredfold, and made cotton in a few years the most profitable crop of the country. The invention of the power and Jacquard looms about the same time that the cotton gin came into use makes the beginning of the nineteenth century the most important period in the history of textile manufactures. In 1805 there were 4,500 cotton spindles at work in the United States. In 1900 there were nearly 19,000,000.

§ 3. The Steamboat.

The year 1800 is notable as the date when the double-acting steam engine of Watt, invented eighteen years before in England, became upon the expiration of his patents free to the world, a gift that christened the nineteenth century as the "age of steam." In 1807 Robert Fulton, learning the lessons of such steamboats as Fitch's, made the first practical steamboat, the *Clermont*, and established with it permanently the steam navigation of the Hudson River. The first trip of the *Clermont* from New York to Albany, 150 miles, was made in thirty-two hours, and the return trip in thirty hours. For a long time he owned an exclusive monopoly of steam navigation. Four years later Fulton built at Pittsburg the first steamboat that traversed the Ohio and Mississippi

Fitch's Steamboat. 1788.

rivers. It was a stern-wheel boat, and made the trip to New Orleans in fourteen days.

Eli Whitney.
Inventor. Born, 1765; died, 1825.

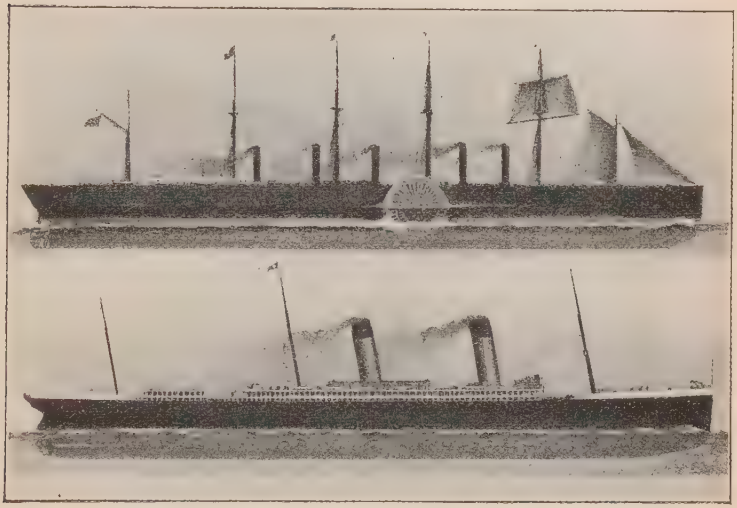
In a few years there were hundreds of steamers plying on the Mississippi and its branches, opening up the great West to settlement and civilization.

On our Western rivers both stern- and side-wheel boats were used. In the East side-wheelers were the rule, and in a few decades the magnificent floating palaces of the Hudson River and Long Island Sound were evolved, making a type of boat that holds its own to-day, with little modification in fifty years.

§ 4. Ocean Steamers.

The screw-propeller, which is now universally adopted for sea-going steamers, was first used in this country by Colonel Stevens of New Jersey experimentally in 1804. In 1836 the idea was further developed by John Ericsson, then living in England; and the steamer *Robert F. Stockton*, built in accordance with his plans, was sent to the United States. It was thirty years, however, before screw propulsion of ships was fully established in its superiority for ocean voyages. The last of the side-wheel Cunarders, the *Russia*, was long a popular ship among the rival sisters of the stern-propeller. One advantage remained with the paddle-wheel ship, — it did not roll as much in a heavy sea as the propeller steamboat.

The first steamer to cross the ocean was the *Savannah*, in 1819; time, twenty-six days. In 1852 the United States steamer *Arctic* was regarded as the greyhound of the Atlan-



1. Great Eastern 1858. Length, 692 ft.; displacement, 27,000 tons.
2. Oceanic 1899. Length, 704 ft.; displacement, 32,500 tons.

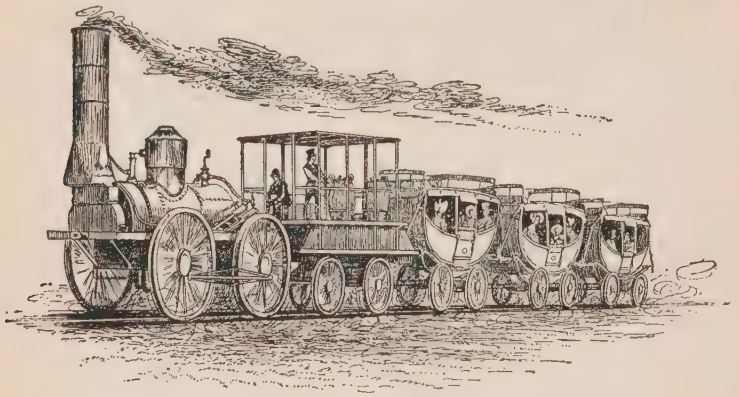
tic, her record time being nine days, seventeen hours, and twelve minutes. Transatlantic speed records have been reduced since then to about five and one-third days by several steamers that cross the Atlantic. Plans are now being evolved to bring the record under five days.

§ 5. Steam Railroads.

About twenty years after the introduction of steam navigation in this country the development of steam railroads began. The father of the locomotive was Richard Trevithick of Cornwall, England, who, after building two steam road-carriages, constructed a locomotive that ran upon rails

in the year 1804. The man who first made a rapid and practical locomotive was George Stephenson, whose engine, "Locomotive," was put into regular service on the Stockton & Darlington Railroad in England.

In May, 1829, the first locomotive to run on an American railroad was imported from England. It was called the Stonebridge Lion, and was placed on a section of the Delaware Canal Company's railroad. The first American

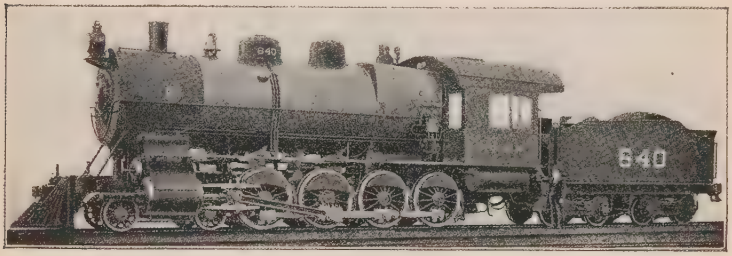


Early Passenger Train.

locomotive was built by Peter Cooper at Baltimore, and ran on a piece of what is now the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad, about thirteen miles. The distance was accomplished in less than an hour, and a fine horse raced the locomotive back to the city. The puffing little machine beat the horse. In 1830 there were twenty-three miles of railroad in the United States. In 1840 there were 2,818 miles of track. In 1902 the railroad mileage exceeded 250,000. The mileage of all Europe is but 180,000.

The nation to-day is bound together by railroads as with

steel bands. San Francisco is practically nearer Boston to-day than New York was one hundred years ago, when



Greatest Locomotive Steam Engine in the World. Weight without tender, 116 tons; with tender loaded, 160 tons.

the old-fashioned stage-coach took a week to cover the distance. Compared with the effort and discomfort attending the old stage-coach trip, a journey across the Continent to-day is a luxurious diversion.

§ 6. Canals.

As a means of transportation, canals antedate railroads in this country about ten years. In 1822 Lake Champlain and the Hudson River were connected by a canal from Whitehall to West Troy. In the same year Chesapeake Bay and Albemarle Sound, North Carolina, were joined by a canal running through the great Dismal Swamp. The Erie Canal from Albany to Buffalo, completed in 1826, was by far the most important work of the kind ever undertaken in this country, and has grown in importance with the growth of the country and especially of the great West. Its usefulness lies in the fact that it gives cheap transportation of grain and of other products of the West to tidewater at New York. The great natural partner of this

canal is the Hudson river, which at the Highlands cuts through the Alleghany range of mountains.

Prairie Schooner.

The Welland Canal, avoiding the Niagara and connecting Lake Erie and Lake Ontario through a short canal not quite twenty-seven miles in length, is of interest for the reason that practically it makes seaports of all the cities on the chain of great lakes extending westward from Ontario. The depth of the canal is fourteen feet, and vessels of less than that draft can carry cargoes from Chicago to Liverpool without breaking bulk, with the additional aid of the short canal around the Lachine Rapids of the St. Lawrence River. There are several canals of importance connecting the coal regions of Pennsylvania with Philadelphia and New York, two that join the Ohio River and Lake Erie, one the Mississippi and Lake Michigan, and several constructed to facilitate lake and river navigation. But the multiplication of railways and the lowering of freight charges have in the last thirty years diminished the relative importance of canals, although their value will always be great, if in no other way than as a check upon high charges of the railroads.

§ 7. Coal and Iron.

Contemporary with the growth of railroads and facilities for transportation has been the development of the coal and iron industries of the country. The one mineral that binds

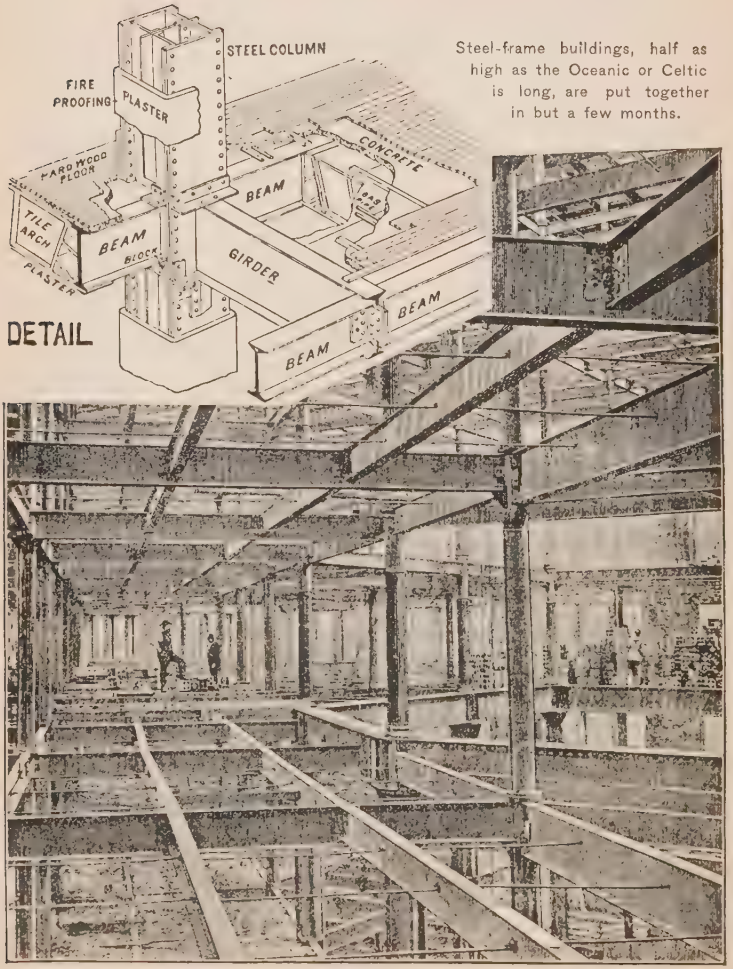
the world together to-day is iron and its product steel. It is the foundation of all industries, as it is the essential feature of all implements, tools, and machinery.

Our railroads run on steel, our bridges are made of steel, our large buildings are framed in steel, and our steamships are built of steel. Iron and steel enter into the construction of every house and factory in many ways, and are the

The Brooklyn Bridge across the East River in New York City.

strengthening elements in almost everything now made of wood. Fortunately for this country, iron is abundant in many of its regions. Western Pennsylvania, northern Alabama, the Lake Superior region, Illinois and Colorado, have vast sources of supply, and the abundance of bituminous coal available for smelting purposes makes the United States to-day the greatest iron and steel producing nation

Steel-frame buildings, half as high as the Oceanic or Celtic is long, are put together in but a few months.



Modern Fire-proof Building with Steel Frame.

of the world. Great Britain, which ten years ago led in iron and steel production, made in 1900 about 14,000,000 tons, and the United States 24,500,000. Better than any other standard that measures the material greatness of a country is its production of iron and steel. This is well recognized abroad, and to-day the nations of Europe are treating this country with a politeness to which we were utter strangers a few years ago. It is indeed true that "Nothing succeeds like success."

After the close of the War with Great Britain in 1812–14, the manufacturing period of this country may be said to have begun. During the eight years of President Monroe's Administrations, with a protective tariff in force, a great variety of manufacturing enterprises were started.

§ 8. Our Manufactures.

Natural water-powers were utilized in the early days, and the steam engine supplemented the waterfall. Factory towns became common, especially in New England, where cotton was the great staple of manufacture, whose conversion into cloth, for sale in all the great markets of the world, saved that part of the country from staying poor.

Iron, wood, wool, leather, and many other materials began to be worked up into a thousand articles of utility, and to-day there is a larger variety of manufactures in the United States, and a greater total valuation of yearly product, than in any other country. The product for 1900 was not less than $12,000,000,000 in value. The average adult operative receives annually $550 in wages, and by means of machinery produces over $2,000 worth of goods.

Though we have added numerous forms of industry to the original agriculture of the country, the tilling of the soil

still maintains its prominence as a great source of our wealth and prosperity. Besides raising the cereals and meat that feed our own people, we are supplying most of

Kansas City, 1903. Missouri River flood at Railroad Station.
In part, this is the water that, falling in the arid West, may there be saved for irrigation.

the food for the people of Great Britain, and a large proportion of the food of many other nations that in return send us their manufactures and other products. With the development of irrigation in the arid West we shall have still more surplus agricultural produce.

§ 9. Our Agricultural Products.

American inventiveness has produced labor-saving machinery which enables one man to do the work of many. Mowers, reapers, harvesters, and steam-threshing machines now handle the great crops of the West. The steam plow, with a dozen shares attached, turns up the soil for the seeding machines over vast tracts of land. Over one hundred million bushels of wheat are now annually exported from this country; and the average export of corn — America's great gift of food to the world — has averaged recently almost two hundred million bushels a year.

Our cotton crop, however, is the most valuable export that we produce. The mills of the world would have to close without it. Our annual crop of about 11,000,000 bales is seven-eighths of the whole world's production of cotton; and two-thirds of it we send abroad, which brings about $250,000,000 in trade annually back to this country.

It was supposed fifty years ago that the agricultural regions of the United States did not extend beyond the Mississippi River basin; but the storage of water in the comparatively rainless regions of the far West, then called "The Great American Desert," and its distribution in systems of irrigation, — reservoirs, canals, and ditches, — has made vast tracts of what was apparently worthless land bloom with rich growths of fruit, grain, and vegetables. Great plans for irrigation by the assistance of the National Government have recently been adopted, 1903. An investment of $200,000,000 in reservoirs that impound the melted snows of winter and the rains of spring and in great canals, will more than repay itself in a single decade of years.

The value of the leading crops of the United States in

1900 was in millions of dollars: corn, 751; cotton, 375; wheat, 323; hay, 250; oats, 208; and of dairy products, — butter, cheese, and milk, — 450.

§ 10. The Precious Metals.

For the first half of the nineteenth century the mining industries of the country did not include the production of gold or silver in any considerable amounts. The mountain regions of North Carolina and Georgia yielded a little

Cape Nome in Winter. Alaska's Gold Reefs.

gold, but probably not more than $5,000,000 in fifty years. The discovery of gold in California, Colorado, and other Territories of the United States, which began in 1849 and has continued ever since, until every State and Territory in the Rocky Mountain region and on the Pacific Slope, including Alaska, is a gold producer, in the last fifty years of the nineteenth century resulted in putting into the various operations of business and finance over $2,000,000,000. This enormous sum has fathered trade enterprises to the

value probably of many times that amount, for "gold is a great breeder of business," and through the manipulations of credits and loans a million dollars of gold in a bank is a fair basis for ten times that amount in discounts. In this same fifty years, in addition to two billions of gold, silver valued at over eight billions of dollars was mined. The value of the copper produced was yet larger.

The coal and iron mining industries of the country represent a far greater annual value than that of the gold product; but coal and iron are consumed, while gold that goes into circulation, or serves as a basis for it, persists in its beneficent function as a facilitator of exchanges or trade. To a lesser extent what is true of gold is true of silver. The profit in the great business of banking is in the fact that one piece of gold or one sum of money may settle ten or a hundred debts of the same amount in a year, and the banker takes his little toll on each transaction.

One hundred years ago there was little gold or silver in the United States, and trade was (especially in the country districts) an exchange or barter of the commodities of life. Taxes were often paid in beef or other standard commodities. The early Virginians paid their debts and bought their goods with tobacco. Furs and skins served a similar purpose in other parts of the country. In trade, the Indian's wampum, made of seashells, was long the current coin. But the thrifty settlers near the seashore started wampum factories and inflated the currency, and prices rose to a height in wampum that finally drove that currency out of use. Our national finances and our general business are now upon the gold basis, as is the commerce of Europe.

§ 11. Banking.

In 1782 Robert Morris of Philadelphia, Superintendent of Finance for the Continental Congress, the friend of Washington, and the patriot whose timely aid more than once saved the Army of the Revolution from distress, conceived the idea that a bank conducted on sound principles would be of great service to both Government and people. The lucky arrival of $470,000 in specie as a loan from France enabled the Bank of North America to make a good start. It attracted large deposits, and was enabled to make generous advances to the Government for the purchase of army supplies. The Bank is now in the one hundred and twentieth year of its honored existence, and has failed to pay its semi-annual dividend only five times. The Bank of New York was started a few years later, and the Bank of Manhattan County soon followed.

The first Bank of the United States was established in 1791 by Hamilton, the first Secretary of the Treasury. This Bank lasted until 1811, when political opposition killed it. After an experience of five years, during which specie payments were generally suspended by the banks of the States, and especially by those organized for the purpose of taking over the business of the United States Bank, a new Bank was chartered by Congress under the same title as the old. This lasted to the limit of its charter, — twenty years, — when, owing to the opposition of President Jackson, Congress refused to renew the charter.

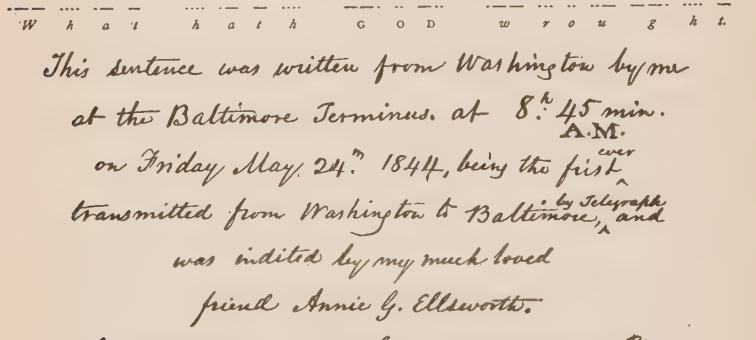
From that time to the year 1861 chaotic conditions prevailed in the banks of the country. Immediately after the dissolution of the United States Bank, the State of Michigan passed a very free banking law, — so free that

many of the banks were located in the depths of forests, where men were few and wildcats many. Thus the State banks came to be known as "wildcat" banks, a name that clung for many years to banks anywhere that were irresponsible. While well-managed banks have always existed in the United States, badly managed banks were very much in evidence in this country up to the year 1861. The passage of the National Banking Act almost abolished State banks by a ten per cent tax on the circulation of their notes, and encouraged the establishment of National Banks by allowing them to purchase Government bonds and to issue notes based on the bonds. This national currency — good everywhere — is a boon that few of the present generation appreciate. Before its advent there was a bewildering variety in paper currency. Money that would pass in one State might be refused across the border-line of the next.

In Illinois, a year or two before the War of Secession, a bank-note that was worth ninety cents on the dollar was regarded as "gilt-edged." Nearly all the State Banks had suspended, and their bills were worth from fifty to eighty cents. Illinois had been trying the "wildcat" system, — not quite so recklessly as Michigan, but in a way that indicated a great lack of financial wisdom. A dozen epidemics of "wildcatism" in banking may be traced in the financial history of the United States; and, as though that were not trouble enough, in the early days the counterfeiters were always active, and made life a burden to receivers of money. Every office was provided with a "Bank-note Reporter," in which hundreds of new counterfeit certificates were reported every month. This constant issue of new notes, with a hundred different rates of discount on bills that were genuine, made confusion everywhere.

§ 12. Electricity.

It was the great Benjamin Franklin who made the first important American discovery about electricity, — that lightning is one manifestation of it. While all Western Europe also was then and ever since has been studying and utilizing electric force, it is the peculiar glory of America that the greatest electrical inventions have been the work of her men of scientific and mechanical genius.

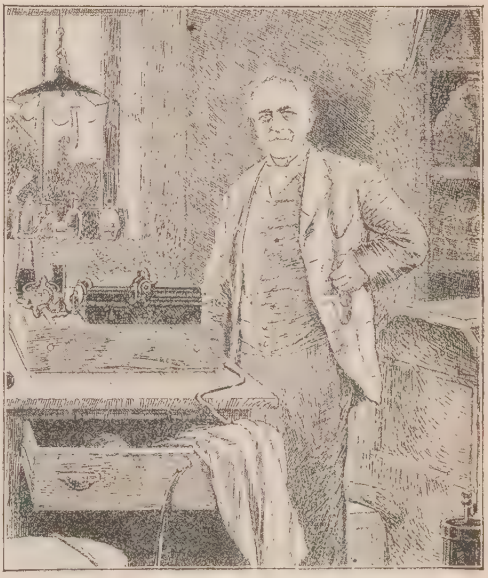

W h a t h a t h G O D w r o u g h t
This sentence was written from Washington by me
at the Baltimore Terminus. at 8.h 45 min.
A.M.
on Friday May 24.th 1844, being the first ever
transmitted from Washington to Baltimore, by Telegraph and
was indited by my much loved
friend Annie G. Ellsworth.
Sam.l F. B. Morse. Superintendent of Elec.
Mag. Telegraphs.

In 1844 Professor Samuel F. B. Morse, after a dozen years of effort, brought to a successful issue his experiments in electric telegraphy under the patronage of the National Government. He was a graduate of Yale College, and an artist, a scholar, and a genius.

The last twenty-five years of the nineteenth century may fairly be termed the great developmental era of electricity as an industrial force.

The electric telegraph came into being forty years before this period, and the first forms of many modern electric appliances date back of 1875. The growth of electricity as

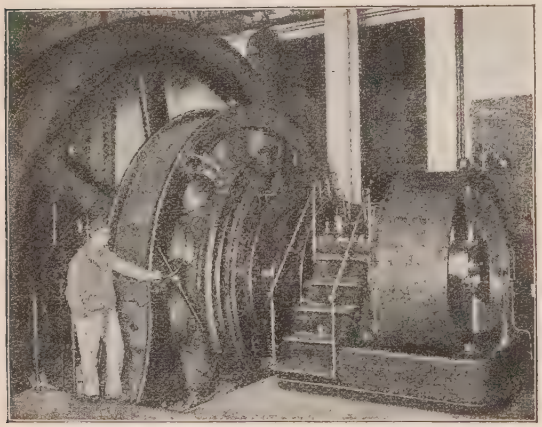
a factor in modern civilization since that date has been so extensive and rapid as to give a distinct character to the present age. Electricity now furnishes light, heat, and power, in addition to its first great work of transmitting the words and thoughts of men instantly anywhere by wire. After the great invention of the telephone in 1876 by Professor Bell, which in a very brief time came into use in all parts of the country, the dynamo which converts steam- or water-power into an electric current, and that current into power again for economical use, is the great feature of the industrial development in electricity.



Thomas Alva Edison. Born, 1847.
The Greatest Inventor in the History of Mankind.
Electric lamp; phonograph; telephone transmitter; telegraph improvements; electric storage battery.

A most striking feature in this development is that of electric railways. The now familiar trolley, unknown in 1880, is, for distances under twenty miles, an effective rival of the steam railroad, and is beginning to be successfully used for much longer distances. It has almost

entirely superseded the old-fashioned horse-car, and the limits of its future usefulness are not yet visible. We stand to-day on the borderland of electric development. When the problem of turning the potential energy of coal directly into electricity is solved, or when the way is discovered to tap the electric currents of the earth and to transmute them into work without the intervening decomposition of metals or the driving of dynamos, we shall see such a growth of mechanical power as will greatly change the social conditions of mankind. Recent advances in electrical engineering indicate that the time of cheap production of electricity is not far off. It is now possible to carry an electric current many miles with but slight loss.



Dynamo.

Theoretically, power that does not cost anything would make food very cheap and greatly lighten the task of labor. If in the future the chemists succeed in their efforts to make food artificially, we may have practically free food and free power. This achievement, like aerial navigation, is within the range of possibility.

§ 13. Machinery and Man.

It has often been questioned whether, on the whole, machinery tends to better the average condition of mankind, which is that of a laboring man of one sort or another. By their unhealthful conditions, many kinds of manufacturing business directly shorten the lives of their operatives. The life of a man working in a factory eight or ten hours a day is dwarfed, even if the work involves no directly injurious conditions, and the individual is reduced to somewhat the condition of a mere machine, good only while his fiber holds out. Shop-girls and clerks are often worn out by the unhealthy conditions of their employment, and thousands of business and professional men die every year from overwork. Indoor work with its confinement, often in badly ventilated and noisy rooms, is unnatural and dangerous to the physical well-being.

Electric Trolley Railway Car.

The truth of the matter seems to be, that while the extremes of poverty and riches are unfortunately accentuated at the present day, the average living conditions are much better than those of a hundred years ago. The spread of intelligence and education has raised the standard of life and stimulated the ambitions of mankind.

§ 14. Labor Organizations.

One of the most striking features of modern life is the organization of laborers for their protection and improvement. Laboring men, by education, have come to know that if they would share fairly in the enormous production of wealth now going on, they must unite for all legitimate purposes, among which are the increase of wages and the decrease in hours of labor.

Many great labor organizations of the country have grown up during the last forty years. The Knights of Labor, the Federation of Labor, amalgamated associations, and trade unions, great and small, when wisely led, accomplish much that is good. The eight-hour law, now recognized by a majority of the States in public work, is the greatest achievement of the laboring people. Their unions brought this to pass. Another achievement of the united working-classes has been the prohibition of child-labor. Trade unions have also been influential in raising wages. Labor organizations have sometimes attempted to tax business more than it will bear, and have, in certain instances, made conspicuous failures in so doing. Many employers have shut up factories rather than yield to what they considered unjust demands on the part of striking employés.

§ 15. Corporations.

While trade unions, on the one hand, have organized the laborers, the owners of capital on the other have unified the management of many industries in this country into what are known as "trusts." The largest of these are the United States Steel Corporation with a capitalization of over $1,000,000,000, and the Standard Oil Company with a

capital nearly equal in value. After these come the Western Union Telegraph, the Consolidated Tobacco Company, the American Telephone Company, the Amalgamated Copper Company, the American Smelting and Refining Company, the American Sugar Refining Company, the Pullman Company, and the United States Leather Company, all with capitalizations ranging from one hundred millions to two hundred millions; these vast organizations are followed by about seventy more, with capitalizations of ten to a hundred millions each; and these by hundreds more, with capitalizations of one to ten millions each.

Besides these industrial "trusts" there are the immense railroad corporations. The Pennsylvania railroad system is valued at a billion dollars. The stocks and bonds of the Rock Island now amount to half a billion dollars. Others also exceed a hundred millions. These are enormous figures, and yet the amount of the savings bank deposits in this country would buy up the ten leading trusts and railroads and have a considerable surplus left. The wages of labor in the United States for one year would buy up all the great trusts and railroads with some hundreds of millions to spare.

§ 16. Labor and Capital.

With organization on both sides, capital and labor are not unequally matched. With the more intelligent leaders of labor, strikes are not now favored except as a last resort, when arbitration of disputes is refused. The spread of education and the growth of intelligence in this country lead to the hope and expectation that labor troubles will decrease. American business affairs and social relations are now so complicated as to make industrial peace essential to our general welfare.

§ 17. Our International Leadership.

The geographical position of the United States, our enormous natural resources, and the intelligent and forceful character of our people, have placed us at the beginning of the twentieth century at the head of all nations in material wealth and power; and our schools, colleges, and universities have given our people that wisdom which is competent to direct private and public affairs, and to lead in the development of national institutions. Apprehension is now felt in Europe that the lion's share of the world's trade will fall into the hands of this country. Individuals, delegates, and committees from foreign shores are constantly visiting America to study the methods that have led to such marked success; and Americans are overrunning the world with capital and enterprise, developing electric railways in London, opening mines in Siberia, building bridges in Egypt and India, buying steamship lines to England, starting banks in the Orient, selling oil upon all the continents: — in short, extending American business around the globe.

All this wealth and power and honor are gratifying to our national pride. It may be that before this century is over, the United States will occupy somewhat the position of the Roman Empire among the nations of old. It is well in our race for wealth to bear in mind the truths that although men can make money, money cannot make men; that riches and luxury are apt to breed unkindness, and with unkindness we are unkinned and disunited. The only guarantees we can have against social revolution, against disintegration into classes and factions, and against national decay, are the wisdom to understand the causes that lead to the fall of empire, and the righteousness that rights all wrongs.

The causes of national decay are the same as those which break up families. They are all forms of unkindness, the denial of the natural affections and of the claims of kinship.

§ 18. Our National Wealth.

We can picture the absolute facts of the national wealth only by the greatest efforts of the imagination. From the fact that a fair town house of six or eight rooms, almost anywhere in our country, is worth $2,000 to $3,000, it is comparatively easy to understand that the houses of a city of ten thousand people are worth $4,000,000 to $6,000,000. Large as the total is, we can yet picture a collection of two thousand houses. When a fair-sized farm of one hundred acres, with buildings, is worth $4,000 to $5,000, it is possible to conceive of a State with ten thousand of such farms, worth in all $40,000,000 to $50,000,000. The yet vaster sums of the National wealth to be understood must be compared with smaller sums

Population of the Contiguous Continental U. S.	80,000,000
Total Wealth (estimate, 1903) of All the People	$90,000,000,000
Value of All the Farms and Mines	20,000,000,000
Value of All the Other Real Estate	25,000,000,000
U. S. Money in Circulation	2,700,000,000
U. S. National Debt	1,100,000,000
All Other Government Debts (State, County, Local)	2,500,000,000
Savings Banks Deposits	2,750,000,000
National Bank Resources	1,750,000,000
Insurance Company Assets	2,000,000,000
Railroads, Steam and Electric	6,000,000,000

In addition to all this wealth, there is the value of public highroads and of commons, no longer considered in statistics. There are a score of American families each of which possesses property valued at amounts varying from $50,000,000 to $300,000,000.

§ 19. Our Incomes and Expenditures.

The wealth of the richest nation on the globe, and the fourth in population, being exceeded only by China, India, and Russia, appears quite as striking when seen in the sums that represent the incomes and the expenditures.

Annual Business Done by All the People	$95,000,000,000
Annual Farm Production, Vegetable and Animal	6,000,000,000
Annual Manufacturing Production	13,000,000,000
Annual Gold and Silver Production	110,000,000
Annual Iron and Copper Production (ores)	500,000,000
Annual Coal Production (value at mines)	400,000,000
Annual Petroleum Production (value at wells)	75,000,000
Annual Railroad Revenue, Steam and Electric	2,500,000,000
Annual Wages paid (all occupations)	8,000,000,000
Annual Imports	1,000,000,000
Annual Exports	1,400,000,000
U. S. Government Annual Income	700,000,000
U. S. Government Annual Expenditures	600,000,000
U. S. Government Post Office (mails) Revenue	115,000,000
U. S. Government Pensions (Wars)	140,000,000
Annual Expenditures by State, County, City, Town, and Other Local Governments	2,500,000,000

§ 20. Some Instructive Comparisons.

The farmers and importers receive for leaf tobacco annually about $100,000,000, while the product is marketed to consumers for $700,000,000, the difference representing costs of manufacture and of sales, including internal revenue taxes. Similarly, the various distilled and malt liquors cost the consumers annually $1,250,000,000, of which the farmers receive perhaps a tenth for their corn, barley, rye, and hops. It is instructive to compare with these vast sums, other national expenditures. For public education we pay $225,000,000 annually, and for private education $50,000,000. We spend for all our churches, home missions

and foreign missions, our hospitals and asylums, for all philanthropies and charities, less than the billion dollar yearly national bill for patent medicines.

§ 21. The Free-labor System.

In recent years the average annual income of adult workingmen in manufacturing industries has been $450. It is somewhat more in the trades that require skilled laborers, and considerably less in the great factories of cotton, woolen, and silk textiles. This seems a comparatively small sum in view of the vast income of the nation as a whole, and especially in view of the private incomes of certain individuals. There has arisen in recent years much criticism of the free-labor, work-for-wages, private-ownership-of-land-and-capital system of modern economic democracy. The subject is indeed very difficult to understand, — difficult for grown people as well as for boys and girls.

It is important to remember that in early colonial times a considerable part of the population were brought to America to work for their masters for food and clothes and shelter, without the privileges to change masters and employment, to hold land, and to manage their own family concerns. The development of civilization in America has freed all bond-servants, white and black. It has given all of us freedom of worship, freedom of employment, privileges to hold land, to vote, and to take office, and to educate our children at the common cost, freedom to go where we will, and freedom to employ others. Life still grinds hard upon the poor. But even the poor of to-day with health may hope to become fairly well-to-do. The free-labor system is unquestionably the best system to produce and to distribute wealth yet known among men.

§ 22. The Disappearance of Poverty.

In human history there have been six great causes of poverty: sickness, ignorance, isolation, fraud, force, and servitude to tyranny.

The first of these causes existed in the oppressed, the next two in the oppressors, and the last was a relation between slave and master. The marvelous advances of science are doing away with sickness. Ignorance is steadily decreasing: against it work the public schools, the newspapers, and the influence of the political franchise, which encourages men to think. Isolation is almost unknown: the mails reach the remotest hamlet. Fraud grows increasingly more difficult; the increasing general intelligence and social solidarity, together with the right to vote, that bulwark of personal freedom, tend constantly to give the laborers more and more of "the fruits of their own hands." No man to-day can be made poor by force, for pillaging and other crimes of violence by which property is taken away are impossible. Servitude, which prevented the development of the mind and of the will, has been legally destroyed. If the wage-system is, as some contend, a wage-slavery, it is so, not by law, but only by reason of the laborers' being too ignorant to seize the legal opportunities of absolute personal freedom.

It is true that it is too expensive for the individual poor man to go to law for the enforcement of his rights against a rich man or corporation disposed to wrong him. But this has always been true. Our gains have been in the increasing opportunity of the poor to combine, and in the increasing disposition of all courts to do justice between the rich and the poor; — to be "no respecter of persons."

§ 23. The Ownership of Corporations.

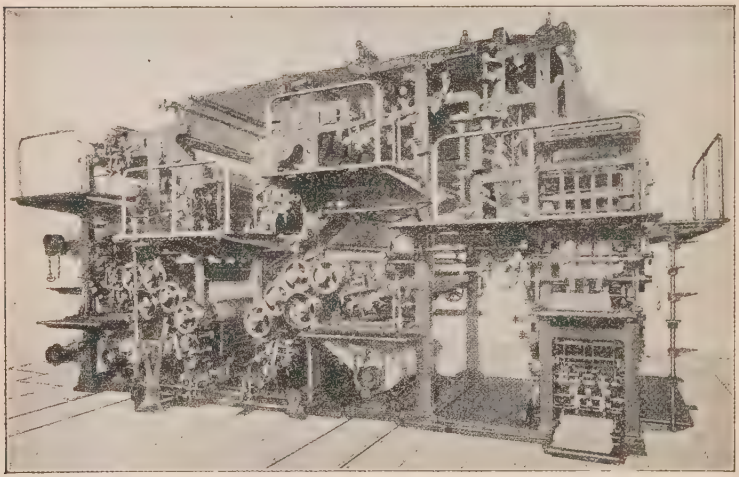
The very corporations themselves, by their shares, which may be bought one at a time by the poor with their savings, tend to do away with poverty. Perhaps the finest quality in Americanism is the desire on the part of all Americans to create a social state in which there shall be as few poor people as possible, but all shall have at least a competence. Poverty, which, carefully defined, is the absence of sufficient property and income to supply one's self and one's natural dependants with an adequate amount of the things necessary for the physical, mental, and moral life, is older than human history. Once universal, it is now not even the typical condition of American families.

Of the three methods proposed for doing away with poverty, one is socialism. By this all property is to be public. No one is to have any property at all except such as may be apportioned to him by government. Each one is to do the work and to live the life that the rulers of the government, themselves elected by the economic democracy, may assign. By this scheme, there will be no poor who are free, for the lazy will be driven to work or be imprisoned.

Another method is anarchy. There is to be no government at all. There will be no government-guarantee of title to property, and each will have only what he is physically able to possess and to exclude others from. This scheme would temporarily do away with poverty, because it involves the distribution of all wealth. The final outcome of anarchy is, in its terribleness, beyond the dream of the imagination. An absolute despotism would be far, far better.

The third method is that in actual operation, — the gradual purchase of established lines of business, that is of

corporations, by their managers and workers and by the general public, which consumes their products. This purchase provides the developers of business with funds with which to establish new agricultural, industrial, and commercial enterprises. This method means progress, the diffusion of wealth and of economic power, and the creation in America of a social and economic as well as a political democracy.



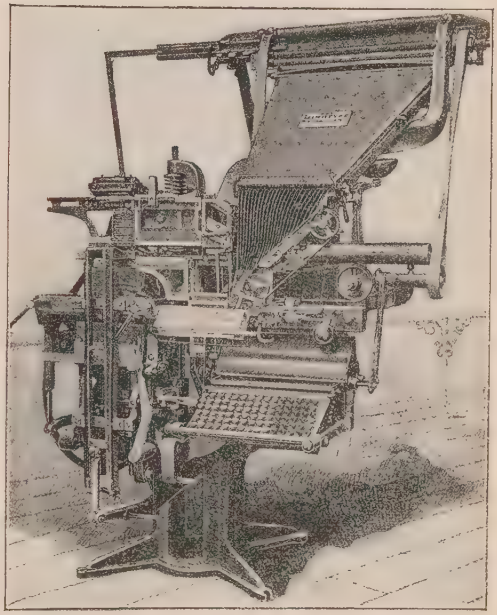
A Modern Printing Press.

It puts a premium upon genius with its inventiveness and industriousness, and upon thrift and good judgment.

A well-distributed ownership of business concerns, together with a general ownership of their homes by families, is as much to be desired as it is steadily coming to pass. As a force working against poverty, it is only less important than the modern ambition of parents in America to give their children the best and longest education possible.

§ 24. The Dissemination of Knowledge.

There are in the United States now 2,300 daily and 15,000 weekly newspapers, with enough more issued at semi-weekly to quarterly intervals to make a total of over 21,000. The machine known as the printing-press has founded not merely an industry in newspapers, but a valuable form of education. Without book-learning beyond the rudiments taught in a district school, any one with an appetite for knowledge may in a few years become well informed by the careful perusal of a good daily or weekly newspaper. "Knowledge is power," and we may fairly attribute much of the power of Americans to knowledge disseminated through the newspapers of the country. They have educated our citizens in the facts of contemporary life in all parts of the world, and have been efficient co-laborers with the teaching, that God has "made of one blood all nations of the earth."



Type-setting by Machinery.

§ 25. Our Increased Power to Produce Wealth.

To this wealth and knowledge we have come in three hundred years since John Smith led the Jamestown colonists to success. The average length of human life was increased by a dozen years. These have been added to the productive period. The average age at death is now nearly forty-four years. About twenty-three people die annually now in every thousand of our population. The removal of the feeble-minded and of the insane from the homes to great institutions set free their care-takers. The improvement in morality and in health also added to the wealth-producing power of the American people. The actual labor-power of our people in wealth-production now is equal to that of a hundred million of able-bodied men, working without machinery. For science and invention have multiplied by ten times, yes, a score of times, the productive power of the workingman. Education, by increasing the individual efficiency, still further multiplies it. And the limit of our wealth-producing power is not yet reached.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. What cities were there in 1800?
2. Discuss the development of cotton-manufacture.
3. Give an account of the steamboat and of the steamship.
4. Discuss steam railroads.
5. Give an account of our canals.
6. Discuss the coal, iron, and steel industries.
7. Discuss our manufactures.
8. Give an account of agricultural conditions and products.
9. Discuss the precious metals.
10. Give a summary of the history of banking.
11. Discuss electricity in its industrial applications.
12. Is machinery a help or a hindrance to man's well-being?
13. Discuss labor-organizations, capital and labor, and corporations.

14. Account for the international leadership of the United States.
15. Give some items showing our wealth and income as a people.
16. What is meant by the free-labor system?
17. Are the causes of poverty more or less numerous and effective than in earlier ages?
18. Discuss the dissemination of knowledge and the printing press.

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Wallace's *Our Wonderful Century* (Nineteenth century).
Toynbee's *The Industrial Revolution.*
Byrn's *Progress of Invention in the Nineteenth Century.*
U. S. Census Reports, 1880, 1890, 1900.
International Year Books, 1898, 1899, 1900, 1901, 1902.
Andrews's *History of the United States in Our Own Times.*
Brown's *History of the United States since the Civil War.*
The *Encyclopedias;* various topics and names.
The standard U. S. *Histories.*
Poole's *Index to Periodical Literature.*
Biographies, etc., etc.

ADDITIONAL TOPICS FOR DISCUSSIONS OR COMPOSITIONS.

1. The Modern City Department Store.
2. Getting out a Daily Newspaper.
3. The Laying of the Atlantic Cable.
4. The United States Steel Corporation.
5. A Great Railroad System. N. Y. Central, Pennsylvania, Southern, Atchison, Rock Island, or Union Pacific, etc., etc.
6. The Telephone, and Telephone Lines.
7. The Telegraph, and Telegraph Lines.
8. The Phonograph.
9. Typesetting by Machinery.
10. Government Ownership: — of Coal Mines, of Railroads, etc.
11. Municipal Ownership: — of Street Railways, of Gas Service, of Water Service, etc.
12. The "Single Tax" on Land Values.
13. The Monthly Magazine.
14. The Daily Life of a Wage-earner: the Farmer's Life, etc.
15. A Great Merchant, John Jacob Astor.
16. The Trades Union.

CHAPTER II.

CULTURE.

§ 1. The Colleges and Scientific Schools.

The college of one hundred years ago was, in its course of study and in the character of its instruction, distinctly inferior to a good high school of the present day. Sophomores in those days studied arithmetic. There was a crude smattering of science in the curriculum, with a relatively better course in the Latin and Greek classics. With the growth of the country during the colonial period there had been a gradual improvement in the colleges, and in the common and preparatory schools. In the mere learning to read and write, which is the foundation of a general as well as of a literary education, the country to-day is much better off than New England was in 1700, for there were many who grew up wholly illiterate. The contrast between the early college courses of Harvard, William and Mary, and Yale, and those of modern colleges and universities, is very great.

The most rapid period of growth was in the nineteenth century. The latter half of the century showed a very noticeable improvement over the first fifty years. In 1852 Dr. Henry P. Tappan, on taking the Presidency of the Michigan State University at Ann Arbor, proclaimed the doctrine that science, the modern languages, and history were entitled to equal prominence with Latin, Greek, and mathematics in a college course.

Already the founding of the Sheffield Scientific School at Yale in 1847, and of the Lawrence School of Science at Harvard in 1849, had indicated a new movement in education. Before the founding of the Sheffield School, there was but

one distinctively scientific school in the United States, — the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute of Troy, organized in 1824.

To-day every large college and university has its courses in science, and there are about twenty independent advanced schools of science and technology in the United States. Besides the above colleges may be mentioned these: — Dartmouth, Amherst, Williams, Technology, Bowdoin, Brown, Cornell, Columbia, Western Reserve, Leland Stanford, Vanderbilt, the State Universities of Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, Nebraska, Colorado, California, and the endowed universities in New Jersey (Princeton College), Pennsylvania, New York City, and Chicago. There are several hundred smaller or perhaps less famous institutions. The total annual income of all of them is fifteen millions of dollars, not a great sum for so rich a nation as ours.

Many of the above-mentioned institutions are co-educational, that is, for persons of both sexes. Indeed, not the least extraordinary feature of American education is the development of schools for women, with the opening to them of many of the schools for men. Among the higher institutions for women are Smith, Wellesley, Mount Holyoke, and Bryn Mawr Colleges. In the public high schools of the nation are more girls than boys. The outcome of this will be an average higher general intelligence on the part of young women than on that of young men. In such a social condition, female suffrage is likely to spread into the oldest States of the Union. Among the great leaders of higher education have been Mark Hopkins, Timothy Dwight, Mary Lyon, Catharine Beecher, James B. Angell, Henry Barnard, Julius H. Seelye, Charles W. Eliot, and G. Stanley Hall.

§ 2. Special Education.

The specialization of education has now gone so far, that whatever profession or business or trade a student may wish to enter, he will find a special school or a special department or course of study in some college or university or institute that will instruct him, be it farming, diplomacy, banking, merchandising, theology, law, engineering, medicine, journalism, carpentry, plumbing, iron-working, or any one of a hundred other vocations or occupations.

Schools that specifically teach various trades and occupations, some of them in their higher departments approximating the character of scientific or technological institutes, may be found in many cities. Notable among them are the New York Trade Schools started in 1881.

The first medical school in the United States, the College of Philadelphia, was founded in 1765. The medical schools of the country now number about one hundred and fifty. The first law school was established by Judge Tapping Reeve in 1782 at Litchfield, Connecticut. There are now about seventy-five law schools in the United States.

Public normal schools for the training of teachers are now recognized as a most valuable adjunct to our system of free common education. One hundred years ago almost anyone who could read and write was thought good enough to teach a country school, but a very different idea of the qualifications proper to a teacher now prevails. This is largely due to the influence of good normal schools. They had their beginning in 1839, in which year the normal school at Lexington, Massachusetts, began its work. There are now about one hundred and fifty schools of this kind, private and public, in the United States.

§ 3. Free Common Education: Illiteracy and Inefficiency.

In Massachusetts Bay Colony free common education had its beginning. In the earliest days such education was given in Connecticut and New Amsterdam also. But our present system, prevailing in every State, Territory, Dependency, and Protectorate of the United States, and giving a unique character to American democracy, dates from the middle of the nineteenth century. Then our statesmen began fully to realize that the intelligence and morality of the citizens as well as liberal institutions of government are essential to a republic.

The first organized school systems with superintendents in cities began in the decades just before the War of Secession. Then also were adopted the State systems. The improvement of our free common schools, with kindergartens, grammar schools, high schools, evening schools and lecture courses, normal schools and universities, has been the price of our security as a citizenship of men equal before the law. In these schools all subjects are taught, from reading to the trades and professions. Many of the buildings are handsome, and well equipped with excellent ventilation and sanitation systems. In them are not only principals and grade teachers, but also specialists in music, fine arts, science, domestic and industrial arts, and also medical inspectors and others, who care for the health and the welfare of the individuals and the neighboring community. Among the greatest leaders of free common education have been Horace Mann, Francis W. Parker, J. L. M. Curry, William T. Harris, and William H. Maxwell. William Swinton was perhaps our greatest common school text-book maker.

The standard American school is free, public, common, graded, and taught by experts, using free text-books supplied by the municipality, in a schoolhouse scientifically planned and artistically constructed. And education is practically universal. With the development of manual, technical and scientific training in our common schools, we are rising above the former standard, by which only illiterates were considered uneducated. By the new standard the educated man must be able not only to read and to write but also to make things. By this new standard we call not only illiterates but also inefficients uneducated. The total annual cost of all kinds of education is somewhat less than three hundred millions of dollars, that is, 60 per cent of the cost of meat for all our people, 40 per cent of the cost of tobacco, and 20 per cent of the cost of alcoholic beverages.

§ 4. Public Libraries.

Among the educational influences that promote culture, public libraries occupy an important place. There are comparatively few people in this country to-day who are not within a few miles of a public library. In many of the States, notably Massachusetts and New Hampshire, there is hardly a country town of five hundred people or over without its public library.

§ 5. Early Literature.

The growth of literature in this country has fully kept pace with the increase of material wealth. In the early days, when colleges were teaching arithmetic, a solitary and gloomy poet in New England, the Rev. Michael Wigglesworth, published at Boston a poem in two hundred and twenty-four stanzas, entitled the "Day of Doom," which

proved to be the most popular literary work of the early colonial period. It was a lurid description prophesying the Day of Judgment and the inexpressible torments of "lost souls"; and for a hundred years after its publication in 1662 no other book in New England sold so well. History records that peddlers hawked it from house to house, and that children learned it with their catechisms.

This sort of "literature" passed away with the advent of science and the diffusion of knowledge. Like alchemy,

Library of Congress at Washington.

soothsaying, sorcery, clairvoyance, and other superstitions, it lingers here and there in the minds of but a few unfortunate people to whom modern thought and science have not yet brought their messages of freedom through truth.

In the early part of the eighteenth century the "Magnalia" of Cotton Mather appeared, a work on the church history of New England. A number of political pamphlets were issued

from time to time, but volumes of sermons from the pens of orthodox clergymen made by far the largest part of the published literature of New England in that era. Not until Jonathan Edwards and Benjamin Franklin began to write, was literature produced in this country that the lapse of time has stamped as good. "Edwards on the Will" is still recognized as a monumental work of intellect; and "Poor Richard's Sayings," with many other writings of Franklin, who was the first great American humorist as well as philosopher and scientist, will always be valued as among the most useful and suggestive works of literature.

In 1789 a volume of essays entitled "The Federalist," and written by Hamilton, Madison, and Jay to explain the meaning and intent of the new Constitution of the United States, was published. As a piece of political writing, it was without an equal at that time in philosophic insight and luminous statement. As an exposition of the Constitution, it has never been equaled since, and is not likely to be superseded in the future.

§ 6. Early Nineteenth Century Writers.

In the early part of the nineteenth century there were indications that America was beginning to have some general literature of her own that was worth reading even in Old England. Washington Irving produced "Knickerbocker's History of New York" in 1809, a work of quaint and original humor, not too much to be relied upon as a faithful, historical picture, and the "Sketch Book" about ten years later. Bryant's "Thanatopsis" appeared in 1812, the first of American poems that displayed real genius. Cooper in 1821 published "The Spy," the first American novel that

attracted the attention of the world. Cooper followed this with a series known as "The Leatherstocking Tales," which in England were ranked with the romances of Walter Scott. Indeed, the strong, native flavor of these tales, which depicted scenes of Indian and frontier life, touched the jaded palate of the Old World with an unwonted stimulus. They were translated into several foreign languages, and did much to interest the continent of Europe in America.

§ 7. American Historians.

In 1834 Bancroft published the first volume of his notable "History of the United States." A few years later Prescott's "Conquest of Mexico," "Reign of Ferdinand and Isabella," and "Conquest of Peru," established his fame as one of the most interesting and picturesque of historians. Still later, Motley's "Rise and Fall of the Dutch Republic" and "History of the United Netherlands" gave him the reputation of a great historian. Francis Parkman, who in the last quarter century published a series of historical narratives under the general title of "France and England in North America," is considered one of the greatest historical writers of all ages, ranking with Herodotus, Thucydides, Livy, and Gibbon. Nor can we omit the names of such an historical philosopher as John Fiske and of those painstaking historical scholars, John Bach McMaster, James Schouler, and James Ford Rhodes, all writers upon American history.

§ 8. Other Writers of Genius.

Edgar Allan Poe, with a weird and vivid imagination, gave us a large number of short stories and a few poems, that are works of unquestioned genius. Nathaniel Hawthorne, with an imagination saner than Poe's, and equally

vivid, left the reputation of being the most artistic American writer of fiction. His "Scarlet Letter" is an immortal story of early New England life, and with the "House of the Seven Gables" gives a striking picture of the conditions and characteristics of Puritan life.

Ralph Waldo Emerson, poet, essayist, and lecturer, is the most suggestive and stimulating intellectual influence that America has given to the world. He was not a profound student or a systematic thinker. He did not aim at consistency, and had no desire to found a school of thought or an "ism" of any kind, but his utterances have come closer to the hearts of men than those of any mere philosopher that the world ever saw. Emerson was a seer and a prophet, a kindly and magnanimous spectator and critic of man's individual and social life.

Ralph Waldo Emerson.
Born 1803; died 1882.
Poet: Essayist: Philosopher; Lecturer.

Harriet Beecher Stowe is credited with bringing about greater political results with her story, "Uncle Tom's Cabin," than ever were effected before or since by a writer of fiction. This book struck the system of slavery in this country a blow from which it never recovered. Although in comparison with "Uncle Tom's Cabin," the other works of this writer are little known. From a literary and artistic standpoint "The Minister's Wooing" and "Oldtown Folks" are her finest efforts, and in them we have true pictures of New England life as it was in the early years of the nineteenth century.

§ 9. Poetry in New England.

James Russell Lowell, poet, essayist, and critic, author of the famous "Biglow Papers," which are political satires, and the most popular Minister ever sent to England by this country, is one of the foremost names in American literature. Lowell, with his friends, Oliver Wendell Holmes, poet, prose-writer, and humorist, and Longfellow, the best known of American poets, has done much to confirm Boston's title, "The Athens of America." They were contemporaries in literary work during the forty most stirring years of the nation's history, from 1840 to 1880, covering the period of the Mexican War, the anti-slavery agitation, the War of Secession, and the era of reconstruction and reconciliation.

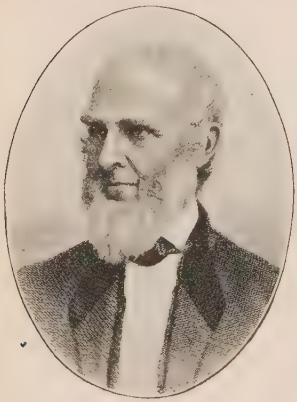
Henry Wadsworth Longfellow.
Born, 1807; died, 1882.
Poet; Novelist: Professor, Harvard College.

Oliver Wendell Holmes.
Born, 1809; died, 1894.
Physician: Essayist: Poet: Novelist: Professor, Harvard Medical School.

During the same period, and not far away from Boston, lived John Greenleaf Whittier, the good Quaker poet, who loved human freedom and the world of Nature with equal strength, and devoted his genius to the anti-slavery movement and to the portrayal of New England character and scenery.

§ 10. Other Writers of Note.

The poet, Walt Whitman, very unlike any other American, made his appearance a few years before the War of Secession, and received cordial greeting from Emerson in this country and Tennyson in England. He was rough, rude, and not at all rhythmical. His plain verses had neither rhyme nor meter; they looked like prose chopped off in various lengths; but there was an elemental strength and freshness in his writing that captivated discerning minds. He was an apostle of universal humanity and of American democracy. Nothing that concerned men was foreign to him. He has been admitted into the manuals of literature, and is known now as the "Good Gray Poet."



John Greenleaf Whittier.
Born, 1807; died, 1892.
Poet; Editor.

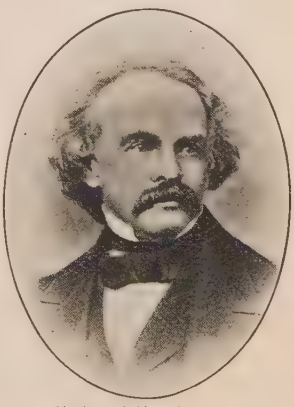
Among the later authors of the nineteenth century may be mentioned William D. Howells, Henry James, and Thomas B. Aldrich, novelists and story-writers; James Whitcomb Riley, the home poet of Indiana; Bret Harte, the California story-teller; Samuel L. Clemens, better known as Mark Twain, the great American humorist, and more than humorist in his delineations of the many phases of American life on the Mississippi and in the far West; Mary Wilkins, the novelist of modern New England life; John Burroughs, essayist of the fields and woods; Charles Dudley Warner, critic, essayist, and story-teller; Sidney Lanier, the poet of

Georgia; and George W. Cable, the novelist of Louisiana. Still others, of more recent appearance, but likely to be remembered in the history of American letters, are Winston Churchill, the historical novelist; Frank Norris, the novelist who, until his untimely death, dealt, as a literary philosopher, successfully with modern social conditions; George E. Woodberry, poet and critic; and James Lane Allen, the novelist of Kentucky.

We must add also to this list, too short to do justice to American talent, Louisa May Alcott, writer of immortal books for boys and girls.

§ 11. Current Literature.

The literature poured out by the printing-press, in the latter half especially of the nineteenth century, in the form of newspapers, magazines, and periodicals, has been enormous, and the educational results have been widespread and often deep. The general intelligence of Americans, our knowledge of the world and of its historical development, and our interest in political and social questions, are due in a very large degree to these ephemeral products of the press. The modern American daily newspaper, weekly papers, and monthly magazines are triumphs of literary facility, inventive skill, and business enterprise. They bring to every man's door fresh information of the affairs and of the thought of all the world.



Nathaniel Hawthorne.
Born, 1804; died, 1864.
Novelist.

§ 13. Public Lectures.

The lyceum system of lectures, which originated in Boston about 1830, in a few years became a distinct and valuable educational power. Among the celebrated names that lent luster to the lecture platform were those of Ralph Waldo Emerson, Wendell Phillips, Edwin Hubbell Chapin, Henry Ward Beecher, and Horace Greeley. The Lyceum was originally a literary association that held meetings for literary exercises apart from lectures, but the name in time came to represent associations formed for the purpose of securing courses of lectures during the winter season for their community.

Literary clubs still exist in great numbers. From time to time there are revivals of interest in different departments of literature. Recently there was a spread of enthusiasm about Robert Browning, which resulted in the formation of hundreds of reading clubs devoted to the elucidation of the fascinating mysteries of that great English poet.

Shakespearean and dramatic clubs are numerous nowadays, and in many towns and cities amateur theatricals excite great social interest.

§ 14. Art.

America has not yet developed a distinctive national art comparable with that of Italy or of Greece. We have had, however, many wealthy and often intelligent purchasers of art products and a few native artists. Among these are to be included James A. M. Whistler, John S. Sargent, Cecilia Beaux, and, in earlier days, Benjamin West and Gilbert Stuart, all famous portrait painters.

Henry H. Richardson, architect, gave our nation high rank in building beautiful and commodious structures.

The American sculptor, Augustus St. Gaudens, a native of Ireland, has produced many notable works.

The New York Metropolitan Art Museum has the largest among many large collections of art treasures in America. There are also other fine Art Museums in the great cities.

Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City.

§ 15. Fairs.

The great expositions at Philadelphia in 1876, Chicago in 1893, and Buffalo in 1901, have spread new ideas and influences through the country, and have done on a large scale what for many years State and county fairs have been doing in lesser degree. The origin of these fairs dates back to 1810, when Elkanah Watson, a merchant of Albany and an owner of a farm near Pittsfield, Massachusetts, originated and managed an agricultural fair at the latter place. In 1815 he organized an agricultural society at Albany, and established fairs and cattle shows in neighboring counties, and a few years later secured an appropriation from the New York State Legislature for yearly State fairs.

There are now hundreds of county fairs held every year, and almost every State has its own annual fair. In these expositions the range of exhibits has grown with the growth of the country, and there is now hardly a county fair so small that it does not have, in addition to a show of cattle, horses, sheep, poultry, and agricultural products, an exhibition of domestic and industrial arts, including the finer arts of elegant needlework and embroideries. Water-color and oil pictures may be seen in many local fairs. Native genius is often brought to the public attention for the first time at a county fair. The county fair stimulates local pride, and tends to the general diffusion of useful knowledge. It is on the same general plan of the humble county fair that the great State fairs are organized, and the grand national and international expositions which cap the climax.

§ 16. National Associations.

There are various scientific and learned societies in the United States which are collectors and dispensers of knowledge. Any one who has an interest in any special science or department of knowledge is likely to find a national association that investigates, collates, and gives out accurate information on the subject. Among the most influential of these cultural associations are: The American Historical Association, The American Economic Association, The American Academy of Political and Social Science, The Association for the Advancement of Science, and the various professional associations, The National Educational Association for teachers, The National Bar Association for lawyers, and The American Medical Society for physicians. In the aggregate an immense amount of knowledge is thus diffused.

§ 17. Physical Training.

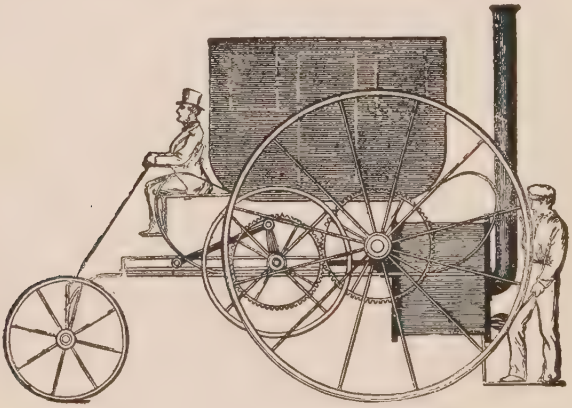
The true ideal of humanity is a sound mind in a sound body. The last fifty years of the nineteenth century witnessed a remarkable development of athletic sports and contests in the United States, including both sexes in its wonderful growth. In the year 1852, Yale and Harvard rowed their first intercollegiate boat-race in a pair of eight-oared barges on Lake Winnipiseogee, New Hampshire. After a few contests at intervals of two or three years an annual boat-race between Yale and Harvard was instituted. With the example of these older colleges before them, the younger ones took up the sport, and now almost every university and college that has water facilities engages in the sport of rowing.

Some years later, in the sixties, the great American game of baseball was taken up by the colleges and by the general public as well. The popularity of this game is without precedent, surpassing that of cricket in England. No town is so small now as not to have its representative nine, and innumerable clubs of boys all over the country practice the game and develop candidates for future honors in professional baseball, where fame and large salaries await the successful few.

With a clientage perhaps as large as that of baseball, lawn tennis has within the last twenty-five years accomplished a most beneficent work. It is a favorite home game of those who have space for it upon land adjoining their houses. It is a game promoted also by hundreds of clubs. Its best feature, perhaps, is that women play it as often and almost as well as men. It affords a maximum of excellent exercise within a limited space, and requires hygienic dress. It brings into play every muscle of the body, and has had

much to do with the creation of the well-known type of the American athletic girl.

The latest of field sports to extend all over the country is the Scottish game of golf. While its devotees are not as numerous as those of tennis, and its requirements are large in the way of grounds for playing, it has created a great social interest. Women as well as men play golf. It is an outdoor sport giving exercise for all parts of the body, and is likely to be as permanent as it is valuable.



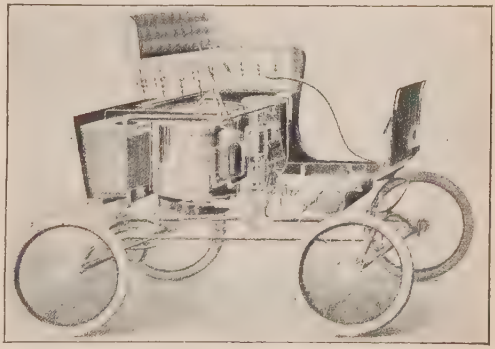
Steam Automobile, 1801.

The most spectacular and interesting athletic sport of the day, and the one that collects the greatest crowds of sight-seers, is football. This sport revives the intense interest that of old attended the gladiatorial games at Rome. It is a contest of physical strength, quickness, and skill.

Polo, played with ponies, is a game in which few can take part. It is a luxury of the healthy and energetic sons of rich men. As a corrective of idleness and as a spectacle of absorbing interest it has been welcomed.

An even more expensive sport is yachting, in which, as seen in the international races for the famous "America's Cup," the public takes the liveliest interest.

The introduction of the present type of bicycle about fifteen years ago marked the beginning of a sport that in a few years developed many features of utility. The relative values of sport and of utility in the bicycle have become very much the same as those of pleasure-driving to the business use of the horse. We have bicycle races in plenty and a multitude of pleasure riders and tourists, but the facility and rapidity with which the bicycle enables man or woman to travel over road and path gives it a purely business value unsuspected in its early days. The country-woman now goes to market on a wheel. The postman and the errand boy use it. The business man rides it to and from his work. It serves more economically and quickly than a horse, except in rain or snow.



Modern Automobile.
(Showing interior construction.)

As a matter of exercise, the bicycle is the most valuable invention of the age; and since women and children use it freely, it contributes with tennis and golf to the general up-building of the nation's physical health.

A very recent development of American mechanical skill

is the automobile for pleasure and for business. An immense amount of capital is already invested in the business, nearly $400,000,000. We have automobiles for a single person and for heavy freight loads, run by gasoline- and by steam-engines, and by electric motors. The automobile is doing away with the horse, revolutionizing street pavements, and greatly increasing the speed of all transportation on country roads, as well as in city streets.

Among other sports that develop and benefit the human body and that have had a noticeable growth in this country are bowling and basketball, the latter a special favorite with women. It has some of the good points of football without its most objectionable roughness.

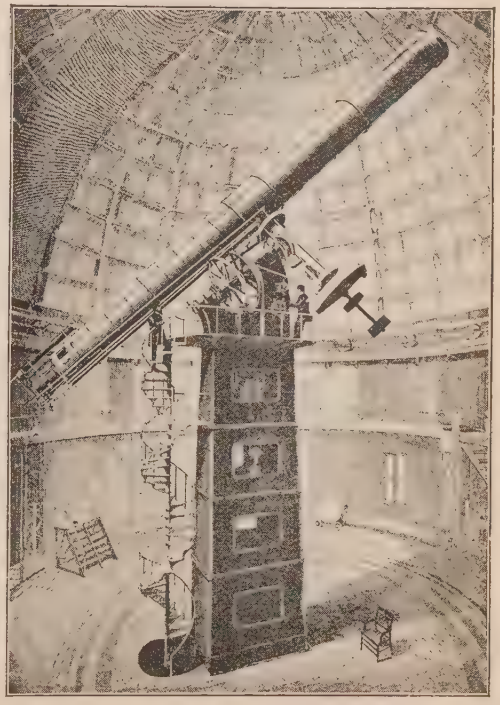
With all these modes of diversion tending to physical improvement we have not by any means exhausted the list. Skating, swimming, fencing, boxing, wrestling, lacrosse, hockey, billiards, curling, roque, ping-pong, racquets, polo, handball, and squash, all contribute to the same end; and the sports of fishing and hunting involve physical exertion and out-of-door living much to the benefit of the devotees. With all these, and other sports not mentioned, the people of the United States are generally keeping their bodies vigorous and their minds clear. We must except only those who engage in distinctly unhealthful occupations, the workers underground, the factory-operatives in certain lines of manufacture, and the women who keep too much indoors.

§ 18. Philosophy and Science.

In pure science America has not yet made a great name. This is also true of our success in philosophy, though our Emerson in moral philosophy is the peer of any sage of all

time, and though Edwards made an immortal name in theology. But in general the American genius is practical.

In applied science we produced Edison and adopted Ericsson and others: and of Edison it is strictly true that he has proven himself the greatest inventor of all ages. Roebling, who built the great Brooklyn suspension bridge, will be long remembered as a scientific engineer. Yet in general science and philosophy there are certain American names that all ought to know: our adopted citizen Agassiz, Swiss by birth, and Audubon, naturalists; Newcomb, Young, and Lowell, astronomers; Remsen, chemist; Hall, anthropologist, educator and psychologist; Harris, philosopher and educator; James, Tichenor, Royce, and Baldwin, psychologists; March, philologist; Ward and Giddings, sociologists; and Loeb, biologist.



The Great Telescope at Lick Observatory, California.

§ 19. Medical Science.

In no field have greater advances been made in the last fifty years than in that of the science of medicine, and of the allied art of surgery. The use of anæsthetics, the antiseptic treatment of wounds, the discoveries relating to the germ theory of diseases, are saving thousands of lives every week. The skill of surgeons is now so far superior to that of their fathers, that operations deemed fatal fifty years ago are now performed with almost uniform success. Special endowments for medical research have been made during the last few years. With one discovery after another we are now on the way towards the extermination of disease. A notable instance in this line is the discovery by American physicians in Cuba that the poison of yellow fever is communicated by mosquitoes of a certain variety. The practical abolition of yellow fever at Havana, where from time immemorial it had been endemic, is one of the most striking and valuable results of the late war with Spain.

The multiplication of hospitals is another indication of the progress made in the treatment of disease and in the alleviation of suffering. In the city of New York to-day there are over a hundred and forty hospitals of all kinds. Special hospitals for special forms of disease are a noticeable feature in the system. In the country at large, hospitals are numbered by thousands.

§ 20. Improvement in Health.

The immense advances made in wealth and in intelligence have been accompanied by equally great advances in the physical health and in morals. By means of telephone and of typewriter, of steel machinery and of general education, we can do more each day of the greatly lengthened

human life. The improvement in health gives us more power to work: we can get work done faster so as to have more time left for rest, recreation, play, amusement, study. Similarly, the general advance in morality has put the average man in better spirit and in better strength for work. The great temperance movement begun by Lyman Beecher a century ago and continued to this day chiefly by women, may not have accomplished all its purpose: but it has certainly wrought a great reform in the general social habits of drinking alcoholic intoxicants. Among the women leaders in this great reform Frances E. Willard will never be forgotten.

§ 21. Fraternal Societies.

Among the influences that are molding our civilization and culture we should not overlook those organizations which emphasize the idea of the brotherhood of man, and which are known in a general way as fraternal societies. The membership of these societies in the United States and Canada is between six and seven millions. The largest of them are the Odd Fellows, with over 1,000,000, and the Free Masons with over 900,000 members. Besides these there are thirty or more fraternities with memberships ranging from 20,000 to 600,000, most of them making a specialty of mutual life insurance, and of assistance in cases of sickness, accident, or misfortune. There is nothing, probably, in the constitutions of any of these secret fraternal societies that contravenes in any degree the rights and duties of good citizenship. On the contrary, there is undoubtedly much that tends to the general good of all, for there is no greater good than brotherly love, and no better work than practical charity.

§ 22. Religion in America.

We call ours a Christian nation, by which we mean that all Americans look upon the standards of the Sermon on the Mount in the gospel of Jesus Christ as ideals. A very large proportion of Americans belong to the Christian churches. Of these the following have the largest memberships -- viz., Catholic, Methodist-Episcopal, Baptist, Episcopal, Presbyterian, Congregational, Unitarian, Universalist. There are also many others.

Peter Cooper.
Inventor: Manufacturer: Philanthropist.
Born, 1791; died, 1883.

§ 23. Great Philanthropists.

America is unique among the nations for her free universal education, the guarantee of her liberties. She has the distinction of having more very rich men who hold their vast treasures as public trusts than any other nation. Among the great philanthropists who have made their names enduring are George Peabody, Peter Cooper, Ezra Cornell, Charles Pratt, John D. Rockefeller, and Andrew Carnegie. It is the peculiar glory of America that almost every multi-millionaire, many a millionaire, and here and there a man merely well-to-do, at his death, if not before, gives a considerable part of his fortune to the great benefactions of humanity, — the university, the hospital, the library, the missionary society, the local charity. The ties of family at times seem weak among us, but the sense of each and all as being parts of the family of man is strong.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. Give an account of education in America; both higher and elementary.
2. Discuss our greatest men of letters.
3. What are the relations to the public intelligence of: libraries, lectures, art museums?
4. What is the value of fairs?
5. Discuss the diffusion of knowledge by national associations.
6. Discuss the national games and sports in relation to health.
7. What are some of the best known names in science?
8. What has been the progress of medical science?
9. Discuss fraternal societies.
10. What are the great churches?
11. Discuss philanthropy.

SUGGESTED READINGS.

See Chapter I., Part Six.

Also *Reports U. S. Commissioner of Education.*

Reports of National Societies, Missionary Societies, Churches, Hospitals, Colleges, Asylums, Prisons, etc., etc.

Current *Magazines.* Standard *Encyclopedias.*

Books on the Various Subjects in the Text.

Among the best short histories of American literature are those by Bates, Trent, Woodberry, Wendell, Abernethy, Pancoast, Painter, Lawton.

TOPICS FOR DISCUSSIONS OR COMPOSITIONS.

1. History of a Great University, College, or Institute: *e g.*, Harvard.
2. The Life of a Great Man: see text of Chapter.
3. The First Grammar Schools: in Massachusetts; in New York.
4. A Great Historical Work: *e.g.*, Fiske's *Old Virginia and Her Neighbors.*
5. A Great Example of Literature: *e g.*, Lowell's *Biglow Papers.*
6. The Story of a Fair.
7. Description of a Game or Sport.
8. Anæsthetics in Medicine: Eye-surgery: Anti-toxin.
9. The Temperance Movement.
10. Private Philanthropy: *e.g.*, The Slater Fund.
11. Public Philanthropy: *e.g.*, A State Asylum for the Insane.
12. Modern Prison Reform.

CHAPTER III.

SELF-GOVERNMENT.

§ 1. The Franchise, or Right to Vote.

THE suffrage, which is the right to vote on political questions and for candidates for public office, is a gift of the State through the law-making power. Sometimes the suffrage is a matter of mutual understanding among those who propose to organize a government, as in the Mayflower Compact. Sometimes the franchise, or right of suffrage, is conferred expressly by a charter that precedes and provides for the organization of government. Or the suffrage may be a matter of agreement or decree after organization, but in all cases it is a privilege conferred. No man votes because he thinks he has the right to vote, but only because the government says that on certain conditions he may vote. In early times this right was the privilege of the few free men.

§ 2. The Franchise in Virginia.

The provisions for and the regulation of the franchise, which in respect to the suffrage means freedom to vote, varied greatly in the early colonies. The managers of the London Company were members of the liberal party of that day in England. They resolved to give the colonists the right to enact laws so "that they might have a hand in governing themselves." With this inspiration the eleven boroughs of Virginia were called upon to elect two representatives each, to meet with the governor and his council. The first Legislature in America met in the summer of 1619 in the little church at Jamestown. At first, under invitation of the proprietors, all freemen in the colony had the right to vote for these representatives, or burgesses as

they were called, but fifty years later it was enacted by them that in accordance with English precedent none but householders and owners of real estate should have a voice in the election of burgesses.

§ 3. The Franchise in Massachusetts.

The original charter of Massachusetts provided that the freemen of the colony should elect a governor, a deputy governor, and a council of eighteen. The council was to meet in what was called a "General Court," that is, a legislature, and to make all needful laws not contrary to the laws of England. Two years later, in 1631, the suffrage was limited by the following statute; viz., —

"To the end that the body of the commons may be preserved of honest and good men, no man shall be admitted to the freedom of this body politic, but such as are members of some of the churches within the limits of the same."

It was provided, ten years later, that anyone, voter or not, should have the right of making any necessary motion, complaint, or petition in any court, council, or town meeting. In 1647 the General Court granted to all persons of good character, whether church members or not, the right to vote in town meetings on local questions, to serve on juries, and to become candidates for town offices. Still later the conditions of admission to church membership were made easier by the introduction of what was called by its opponents the "half-way covenant," which greatly increased the number of church members.

Thus, both in Virginia and in Massachusetts the original franchise rights of freemen were curtailed by later legislation.

§ 4. The Franchise in Other Colonies.

In Pennsylvania the charter of William Penn provided that the right to vote for members of the Assembly should be given only to men of good character who held the Christian faith and were taxpayers. The people of New York Colony, after it passed from the control of the Dutch to the English, acquired a limited suffrage. Georgia, under the paternal supervision of Oglethorpe, granted its colonists neither votes nor voice in its government. Not until Georgia became a royal colony in 1752, was the suffrage given to Georgians. In the Carolinas, also proprietary colonies, the people had no vote until after they were made royal provinces. Rhode Island and Connecticut were little republics from the start, and elected their own governors and legislatures, but the right of suffrage in each was limited as in other colonies.

At the time of the Revolution a property qualification for suffrage was required by all the colonies. In Rhode Island a high property qualification was maintained until the year 1842, when the outbreak known as the "Dorr Rebellion" emphasized a protest against it by the people of the State, and the law was modified.

§ 5. Manhood Suffrage Became Universal.

In all the colonies except Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Rhode Island, Catholics were disfranchised. It was not until after the making of the Constitution of the United States that manhood suffrage, as we understand it at this day, came into being. The whole spirit of the Constitution favored freedom and the abolition of needless restrictions upon the franchise. The first of the ten Amendments

offered and adopted within a few years after its framing, declared against any law prohibiting the free exercise of religion. From that time religious discriminations in State Constitutions and laws were doomed, though in Massachusetts it was not until 1833 that the last vestige of its old church policy disappeared.

Four new States, Vermont in 1791, Kentucky in 1792, Tennessee in 1796, and Ohio in 1803, all with Constitutions recognizing manhood suffrage, became members of the Union. Now there is not a trace in any State law of a discrimination in suffrage against any form of religion, and hardly a vestige of the former property qualifications which were general in the colonies. With disappearance of the property qualifications there disappeared also the right of property-holding women to the franchise, a right that had been common in early days. There prevails in several States an intellectual test, in that only those may vote who can read and write the Constitution of the United States.

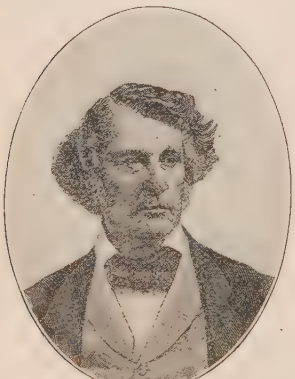
§ 6. The Return and Enlargement of Female Suffrage.

A very significant enlargement of the suffrage has been made within the last few years, in the removal of the discrimination against women in some of the Western States. Encouraged by the example of Wyoming, which some twenty years ago gave women the ballot, three other States, Colorado, Idaho, and Utah, have made women as voters equal with men. It is not unlikely that other States may do likewise.

Partial enfranchisement has been given women in some of the States,—the right to vote on school questions, and, when property-holders, on tax matters; so that in a limited way

woman suffrage may be said to exist in New York, and in twenty-three other States and Territories besides the four first mentioned. It remains now to be seen how strong the demand is on the part of womankind for complete enfranchisement; and there is very little doubt that if they on the whole want the ballot very much, they will get it in time in any State where they are willing to work for it.

The fact that in these times there are twice as many women as men who are graduates of high schools and academies, has strengthened the movements for giving women equal rights of property and citizenship with men. As the great champions of female suffrage — Susan B. Anthony and Elizabeth Cady Stanton — have long argued, there is no good reason for withholding the suffrage from women that does not equally apply to many men; and most of the reasons for granting it to all men apply equally to all women; while any restrictions of the suffrage based on education or property, ought to apply equally to men and to women.



Charles Sumner.
Senator from Massachusetts: Champion of Civil Rights for the Negroes. Born, 1811; died, 1872.

§ 7. The Franchise for the Negroes.

In recent years there has been in the Southern States an important movement tending to deprive the Negroes of the franchise as guaranteed to them in the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution. The outcome of this will be of the greatest importance. The ballot is a bulwark to protect the individual

and persons of his class from oppression by all others. Disfranchisement is a step toward subordination and is the beginning of inequality.

§ 8. Lessons in Self-government.

The most important lessons in self-government are learned not so much in National as in State and municipal politics. Every American is subject to four or five Governments, — the Nation, the State, the County, and the City, Town, or Village, with sometimes the School District added. Of these the State touches him on more points and in more important personal ways than all the others combined. By the vote, and sometimes by office-holding, the citizen learns and practices self-government, which is the only freedom.

It is this free republican system of ours that has enabled us so marvelously to absorb the millions of immigrants from Europe. Hitherto in world-history, immigrants had to fight for land: we have welcomed them.

QUESTIONS ON THE TEXT.

1. Discuss the franchise in the early colonies.
2. Discuss "woman's rights" to the franchise.
3. Discuss the subject of Negro suffrage.
4. What is the value of the franchise?

SUGGESTED READINGS.

Mace's *Civil Government.* Also Fiske's.
Willoughby's *Rights of Citizenship.*
Smith's *Training for Citizenship.*
James and Sanford's *Government in State and Nation.*
Nordhoff's *Politics for Young Americans.*

CHAPTER IV.

AMERICAN AND EUROPEAN HISTORY.

§ 1. America as the Promised Land to the European Poor.

THE troubles of Europe from generation to generation have caused many of its people to seek homes of freedom and opportunity far away from the scenes of the Old World. Since the time of Raleigh's attempts to found a colony till now, every great European war, domestic or international, and every religious or political disturbance in Europe, has resulted in emigration to America. Throughout Europe from Portugal to the interior of Russia, America is known as the "land of the free and the home of the brave." It is the dream of the European poor to reach some day this happy country. The only nation in Europe that has not sent many emigrants to the United States is Spain, which, however, has sent millions of people to Central and South America.

§ 2. The Causes that Led to the Establishment of Port Royal, St. Augustine, and Roanoke.

In 1517 a great agitation in Catholic Christianity in Europe found its leader in Martin Luther of Germany, who represented the central force in the Protestant Reformation. The development of Protestantism in Germany, Holland, Switzerland, France, Spain, and England, hitherto wholly Catholic countries, led to great civil commotion from that time on for a century and a half. The unfortunate French colony that Ribault and Coligny tried to establish in Florida was intended as a home for the French Protestants called Huguenots. At that time the aristocratic French Monarchy was wavering between Protestantism and Catholicism. The

Spanish king, Philip II, who was also German Emperor, was making every effort to force the French king, Charles IX, to remain Catholic. He sent Menendez to Florida to destroy the Huguenot colony at Port Royal and to found the Catholic colony at St. Augustine, 1565.

The efforts of Sir Walter Raleigh to establish a colony in Virginia found popular support in England because that country had become Protestant, and he hoped to develop a great Protestant empire in America, equal to the great Catholic empire of Spain.

§ 3. The Causes that Led to Spain's Losses and to England's Gains in America.

In the hundred years following the discovery of America by Columbus, a fierce religious struggle raged in Spain, and millions of Spanish Protestants were destroyed. The story of the horrors of the Spanish Inquisition is the story of how Spain ruined herself by killing off so many of her best people. To be a Protestant was held by the Spanish courts as being a traitor. During this period, Spain took from the New World gold, silver, jewels, and other wealth equal in value to sixty billions of dollars, — an amount as large as the total wealth of the United States as late as 1880.

With such resources, Spain, at that time the most powerful nation in the world, had her opportunity to become the greatest nation in all history. But, instead, her substance was wasted in civil and international wars for the suppression of Protestantism. The overthrow of Spain dates from 1588, when the Spanish Armada was almost annihilated by the British fleet and by the storms of the Atlantic. This overthrow of Spain saved the region that is now our country from Spanish colonization and gave it to the English.

§ 4. France and New France.

France at first was too much absorbed in religious strife at home to consider schemes for foreign colonization. The massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day, 1572, marked the height of religious madness. In the following century, when France colonized Canada and Louisiana, these colonies were monarchical rather than popular enterprises. It was Louis XIV, especially, who undertook great French settlements in America, and his motives were political and religious.

§ 5. Germany and Holland.

In Germany from 1618 to 1648 there raged the frightful Thirty Years' War, begun as a religious struggle, which reduced the population in many regions to a tenth of what it had been, and completely destroyed business and agriculture, so that for a century the poverty of the Germans was desperate. This led to emigration to Pennsylvania and elsewhere.

Meantime Holland had ceased to be a Spanish province, and was gradually recovering from the fearful persecutions of Spain; but, like Portugal, Holland was too small to establish great colonial enterprises. She was a weak holder of New Netherlands.

§ 6. Causes of the Puritan and Cavalier Emigrations.

In contrast with these conditions upon the continent of Europe was the singular commercial progress with domestic peace in England. This prosperity began with the reign of Elizabeth and continued for half a century. Then came the English Civil War. The causes of this war were two, — an effort by the Stuarts to establish an absolute monarchy in England similar to that in France, and the growth of Protestantism. The Stuarts wished so to reduce the powers of Parliament that Englishmen would lose their right to

rule themselves. At its beginning upon the continent of Europe, Protestantism was an effort to change a whole people's religion from one form to another. In its English development it was an effort to divide the people of a nation into several religious denominations. The Protestant Reformation became sectarian at the very time when the monarchy wished to become tyrannical. The departure of the Puritans from England to New England, 1620–1640, was the logical result. The overthrow of the Stuarts a few years later, 1649, and the supremacy of the Puritans, led to the emigration of their opponents, the Cavaliers, to Virginia.

§ 7. The Founding of the Later English Colonies.

When the Stuarts recovered the throne, 1660, they renewed the effort to establish English royal colonies, taking possession of New York, founding the Carolinas, and assisting the Quakers to develop Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Delaware. Meantime the Catholics, annoyed and persecuted by the Puritan Commonwealth, had settled in Maryland.

It was no accident of history that the English Colonies were established in the order and in the manner shown by the record. The first settlers in America were not Americans, but Europeans in America, and their minds were full of the Old World from which they had escaped.

The advance in English philanthropy first shown by the Quaker settlement in Pennsylvania led to the settlement of Georgia. This new benevolence was the outcome of a religious awakening that would never have been possible but for the invention of print, which permitted the new ideas of humanitarianism to be scattered broadcast.

American colonization was the flowering of European life in a better and happier soil.

§ 8. The Dynastic Causes of European Wars.

Only a few centuries before the discovery of America by Columbus the greater part of Western Europe had formed the empire of Charlemagne. But the Crusades, the Renaissance, and the Reformation had broken up this empire and divided its parts into the nationalities of Europe.

The discovery of America and of South Africa, and the re-discovery of Asia, by enriching Spain, and, to a less extent, Portugal, England, and Holland, had encouraged this development of nationalities. War after war between nations attended their growth. The four wars in America from 1689 to 1763 were caused by the Old World strifes. The thrones of Europe became the prizes of the great families, called "Houses." These great families included the Stuarts of England, the Bourbons of France, the Hapsburgs of Austria, the Medicis of Italy, and the Hanovers of Germany. They had enormous private possessions, consisting of landed estates, commercial towns and cities, commercial and industrial franchises, such as the rights of banking and of the sea trade, and they had soldiers. Their rival ambitions caused constant strife. Aristocracy, not democracy, was the ruling principle in the world until the time of the American Revolution.

§ 9. The Napoleonic Wars and the Re-action.

In opposition to the Bourbons of France arose the people themselves in the French Revolution. The collapse of the Revolution and the prostration of France gave Napoleon Bonaparte, the ablest adventurer in human history, his opportunity. He sought to spread the doctrines of the Revolution, "liberty, equality, fraternity," throughout Europe by making himself the first man of the

world. In this enterprise the armies of a single nation could not defeat the armies of all the other nations in alliance. In such reforms, ideas, not weapons, triumph. In the Napoleonic Wars Europe, Egypt, Syria, and all the Americas were embroiled. A period of comparative peace and of immense progress followed their ending. The peace was interrupted by popular agitations in England, France, Germany, Switzerland, Italy, and Spain, especially in 1848, and blood was shed in civil strife upon the Continent to further the cause of political freedom for the masses.

§ 10. Extreme Political Changes in France and Germany.

A generation ago was fought the last great war in Europe, the Franco-Prussian, which ended in the overthrow of the French Empire and the establishment of a Republic, and in the organization of the German Empire with Prussia under its great family, the Hohenzollerns, as the leading State. The results of the latter political change we have felt here in scientific and educational ideas derived from Germany, and in millions of Germans emigrating to escape from compulsory military service.

§ 11. The Oppression of European Military Systems.

Of all the great nations of the world Great Britain and the United States only have voluntary military service. France, Germany, Russia, even Italy and Spain, all force their youth out of commerce, manufacture, and agriculture into the army for two or three years. Aristocracy still controls upon the continent of Europe, even in republican France. Its oppression is the cause of emigration to America, for in France, Austria, even England, is many a fertile field unplowed. Only democracy, wearing no war-front, can save Europe, at whose expense in a million

emigrants a year we are growing. The story of Europe is the story of kings and nobles fighting each other, subduing their peoples, exiling or imprisoning their brilliant men of books or of arms, and losing their freedom-loving, wealth-producing artisans and peasants. The story of America is the story of profit-making by receiving these enterprising people and turning them into still better men and women, the citizens of a free, rich, just, and peaceful country. Europe is to-day an armed camp, with half a billion soldiers ready for battle, and costing annually many billions of dollars to maintain. They do no work, yet must eat. The burden is indeed intolerable for the poor.

§ 12. All Europe an Overflowing Reservoir for America.

In the course of the centuries Russia, almost unthought of until the time of Peter the Great, has increased in multitude of her people and has stretched her domains from the Baltic to the Pacific. Norway and Sweden, under the rule of the dynasty founded by Napoleon's Marshal, Bernadotte, and his American wife, have, by political union, become a great and progressive nation. From Northern and Eastern Europe have come millions of people to try their fortunes in the rich lands of a free country. Italy, already one people, became one nation, 1848–1861, and increasing too rapidly in population has begun to send hundreds of thousands annually to these shores. The people of Austria and Hungary, united after centuries of internecine war, have begun to find their way hither. All Europe has become a reservoir overflowing across the Atlantic.

Our modern inventions — railroad, steamship, telegraph, newspaper — have conspired to tell the people of Europe with emphasis all and more than the truth of the marvelous

opportunities here, and to bring them by thousands daily to our ports. We won European laborers to do our heaviest work for us, and we borrowed European capital to pay for the labor. America to-day is a younger Europe, with the promise of a better and larger manhood than the Old World ever knew. Whatever is done upon one side of the Atlantic is likely to concern the other. Steam and electricity, and intelligence and sympathy, bring the nations to-day nearer in mind and heart than neighboring villages were in earlier times.

NOTE. The purpose of this chapter is to suggest correlations between American and European history. This will arouse interest on the part of individuals and of the class. The subject is too large to be touched for any other purpose than for the illumination of American history.

SUGGESTED REFERENCES.

Labberton's *Universal History.*
Fisher's *Universal History.*
Myers's *Mediæval and Modern History.*
Bourne's *Teaching of History and Civics.*
Colby's *General History.*
Green's *Short History of the English People.*
The brief accounts of national history — Italy, Spain, France, etc., etc. — in the standard encyclopedias.
Bloch's *The Future of War.*

IMPORTANT DATES.

800. Charlemagne.
1500. Columbus.
1588. The Spanish Armada and Philip II.
1650 Cromwell.
1700. Louis XIV.
1800. Napoleon.
1848. European Revolution.
1875. Victoria.

REVIEW OF THE STORY AND OUTLOOK.

§ 1. Growth in Three Centuries.

The preceding pages of this History of the United States have presented the subject in various aspects. Many books together could not present all of the aspects of the story of the making of the nation as it is to-day. In but three centuries of colonization and growth the country of the Continental United States has come to number eighty million people. In the last decades the rate of our growth has been at the average of twenty-five per cent from census to census. This rate is likely slowly to diminish; but unless it changes greatly, the multitude of the people of the United States a half century hence will be two hundred million.

§ 2. Why England Won Our Country.

In the first centuries of colonization, there was rivalry between Spain, France, England, and Holland. Of these nations, Spain was religious and military, with no class of enterprising workers among her people. France was distinctly military, though in the middle of the seventeenth century her policy in Canada was religious also. England was primarily agricultural and industrial, though religious and political dissension caused the emigration to the shores of Massachusetts Bay. Holland was almost exclusively commercial, and her population was small.

In view of these national characteristics and conditions, it was inevitable that England should outstrip the other nations, for in every colony the fundamental activity must be economic,— to raise crops, to make cloth, to build houses. In these activities the English excelled. At the same time they made good soldiers in their conflicts with the Indians.

§ 3. The Decay of Spain.

In the interests of her religion and of her national power, Spain aimed to establish a ruling colony at St. Augustine, Florida, after the fashion of Spanish rule in Mexico and Peru; but the field was barren, for the Indians of Florida were few in number and poor at that. Further, the domestic decline of Spain had already set in. In the excess of zeal for religion, Spain was discouraging all efforts of individual initiative. Yet we have within the present domains of the Continental United States a considerable number of citizens of Spanish descent. Fortunately for the nature of our political and social institutions, the southern stretch of our country from Atlantic to Pacific was not added until the dominance of the Anglo-Saxon spirit was secured.

The last decade of the fifteenth century and the first three decades of the sixteenth century saw the climax of Spain's greatness. Her decline began with the establishment of the Inquisition, which deprived her not only of provinces in Europe, but also of many of her own best citizens, who perished as martyrs to their faith. By 1587 the people of the Netherlands, who for reasons both of religion and of commerce had resisted their Spanish rulers, were able to secure their partial independence. In 1588 Philip the Second, whose wife had been Mary, Queen of England, was defeated in the attack of the Spanish Armada upon England, and the power of Spain came to an end upon the seas. In 1609 the last of the Moriscoes, the Christianized Moors, were driven out of Spain, which lost thereby the greater number of her skillful artisans and mechanics.

Portugal, the little kingdom in the southwest corner of the Spanish peninsula, became in 1580, and remained for

sixty years thereafter, a province of Spain. This misfortune prevented Portugal from becoming that great power in America, in Africa, and in Asia to which the efforts of Prince Henry the Navigator and his successors seemed to destine her. The Papal Bull of Alexander the Sixth, in 1493, had separated the New World into two parts, the first to belong to Portugal and the other to Spain. The overthrow of the Armada and the cruelty of the Inquisition prevented the effective realization of the Spanish hopes of New World and Old World supremacy in the centuries to come.

§ 4. France and the New World.

The century in Europe that began with the expulsion of the Moriscoes in Spain saw in France the continuation of those struggles between the Catholics and Huguenots which found their climaxes in the massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day, 1572, in the Edict of Nantes, 1598, and in the revocation of the Edict, 1684. This internecine religious and social struggle, together with the ambition of the French monarchs to rule as despots in the Old and New Worlds, prevented the complete success of the French colonizing efforts in Canada and in the Mississippi valley.

While Spain was sending zealots to these shores to be maintained at the cost of Church and State, France was permitting her religious dissenters to go. After the Spanish colonization ceased, these dissenting Huguenots continued to come in small companies to ports all along our Atlantic coast. The French did not come under State patronage to any region south of Canada, except Louisiana. The French political institutions were never imported to our country, but in Canada in the seventeenth century the French

colonies were long maintained by the patronage of both Church and State. Many of the descendants of these French colonies migrated into New England during the second half of the nineteenth century. With the Louisiana territory, 1803, we secured at New Orleans and other settlements a considerable number of citizens of French blood.

§ 5. America, the Refuge of the Oppressed.

Holland sent to New Netherlands many enterprising colonists. The descendants of these, together with emigrants from Germany, constitute to-day a considerable proportion of the population of our Middle Atlantic and North Central States. All of these people came here to escape the European wars and the unjust laws.

The great wars of Europe in the seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries, which included the Thirty Years' War, Seven Years' War, Napoleonic Wars, the Crimean and Franco-Prussian Wars, together with such Civil Wars as that which made Oliver Cromwell Lord Protector of an English Republic in the middle of the seventeenth century, with the French Revolution which began in 1789, and with the French Commune of 1848, completely justified the familiar historical statement that the history of immigration in America is a history of the oppressions of Europe.

§ 6. The English Spirit Controlled Our People.

In 1776 the great majority of the people of the colonies were English; and to-day, despite some twenty million immigrants, of whom only a small proportion came from Great Britain, the dominant strain in the American character and in the American blood is English.

This English spirit, more than anything else, accounts

for the supremacy of the American nation as one of the four great populations of the world, the others being in China, Russia, and Great Britain. The rest of the explanation consists in the nature of the Continental United States.

§ 7. Our Unequaled Geographical Advantages.

No other stretch of land on the earth equals our country in excellence and variety of climate, in fertility and variety of soil, and in the quantity and variety of resources, of minerals, of fields, and of forests, and in extent of seacoast and waterways. The only regions of earth comparable in extent to the United States are the two sections of Europe, Western and Eastern, Siberia, China, India, Australia, South Africa, South America, and Canada. But Europe is considerably farther to the North than the United States, and has no regions like our Southern States in climate. Russia has no seacoast port open the year through. Siberia is much colder than the United States. China has but one seacoast, and by no means the variety of climate of the United States.

Nearly all of Australia is an arid desert. India already is over-populated, and is near the Equator. South Africa offers far less variety of climate than the United States. Canada is too far to the North. South America, and South America alone, is comparable with the United States in opportunity to support a new, great, progressive population; but until the difficult problem of maintaining a vigorous white race in the tropics has been solved, the basins of the Amazon and of the Orinoco will not compete with our magnificent Mississippi basin.

Coal used in winter fires has made possible the permanent

great population in the temperate zones. Nothing equivalent to its protection against the cold is yet known to science as a protection against the torrid heat of tropical summers.

China alone offers, in the temperate zone, a region of earth comparable in extent to the United States, and possesses as great natural resources, but China is already densely populated.

§ 8. Freedom in the United States.

In the present conditions of science and of machinery, mankind may look to the United States alone as the field for the development of a great, free, enlightened, and righteous people. Fortunately for human history, the Pacific coast of the New World was not discovered and colonized by any Asiatic people. Fortunately European conditions made England the successful colonizing nation, and fortunately, also, the early English colonists came over here quite as numerously for the sake of displaying the independence of the English character in its effort to free itself from oppressive institutions of Church and State as for the sake of establishing here those great institutions in their English form and spirit. The first generation of every colony was dominated by the ideas of the mother country. In this new world the hardships and necessities of the new life compelled individual activity, broke up routine modes of thought and action, and caused men and society to adopt new and better views about social classes and social customs.

To understand these great English ideas of public and private we must read Magna Charta, the Bill of Rights, and the Constitution of our own nation.

§ 9. The Period of Settlement.

From 1607 to 1700 all the great colonies were established, — Virginia, New York, Massachusetts, Maryland, and Pennsylvania. By the end of this period the important lines of colonial development were permanently fixed. Democracy in America had not come into being, but the seed had been sown in the independence and positiveness of religious and political thought of individuals. The early part of the eighteenth century was spent upon the difficulties of economic development, which included resistance to the Indians, the building of roads, and the art of agriculture in new climates and with new soils. By 1776, scarcely three generations after the settlement of Pennsylvania, the population of this country had reached nearly three million people, of whom two-thirds were English by birth or descent.

History as yet affords no complete record of the number of emigrants to these shores from 1607 to 1776, but there was scarcely any colony in which from decade to decade the foreign-born and the children of the foreign-born did not outnumber those whose descent had been American for two generations. It is this which explains very largely the distinctly English character of all our colonial life. It explains also the reason why there were so many Loyalists in America during the Revolutionary War.

§ 10. The Influence of the Early Wars was for Union.

The vigorous spirits who worked for the independence of the colonies from Great Britain were chiefly the men who had taken part in the colonial wars, — French, Spanish, and Indian, — and their descendants. It is an interesting reflection that if George the Third and Lord North had been

statesmen understanding the English qualities in the "colonial Englishmen" across the sea, this region of the earth would have remained a permanent self-governing colony of the mother-country. Such a logical outcome would have completely changed the later history of Europe and of North America as well. It was the most important result of the colonial wars, and of the War of Independence, that the leading colonists were brought together in the armies. This mutual acquaintance formed the basis both of the Confederation and of the Constitution. Not those who had traveled widely in the colonies, but those who had stayed at home, resisted the adoption of the fundamental instruments of government that separated the New World from the Old.

§ 11. Effects of the Napoleonic Wars.

The independence of the United States saved our country from becoming seriously embroiled in the great Napoleonic Wars, which lasted from 1795 to 1815. These Wars, with their resultant conscriptions and general social oppressions, caused emigrants to come to this country from England, Germany, Holland, and France. And more emigrants came hither in this period than in all the years that preceded. Emigration out of Europe has resulted quite as much from the hardships of European life as from the attractiveness of American opportunities.

After settlements began in the last decade of the eighteenth century in this country beyond the Appalachian Mountains, the opportunities for poor men in this country became very great. The fertile valleys of the Ohio basin drew away many settlers from the thirteen original States, leaving larger opportunities of business and agriculture

to those who remained in our established communities. Farms in the "Old North-West" cost almost nothing, — in many cases they cost actually nothing. The contrast of America with Western Europe in respect to land and to business was as great as that in respect to the legal and political rights of the individual.

The statesmen who in 1803 secured the Louisiana territory for the United States could not foresee all the results of their great enterprise. They could not have realized success in their effort to extend the domain of the United States, but for the pressure of Napoleon Bonaparte's enemies upon the great war-empire that he was endeavoring to establish and maintain. The same Napoleonic Wars which compelled Napoleon to release Louisiana to us, gave independence to all the Spanish provinces in South America; for in the first three decades of the nineteenth century Spanish South America and Spanish Central America, province by province, revolted from Spain. It was left for the last decade of the nineteenth century and to the United States to complete the separation of the Spanish dominions in America from the ruling country as the result of the Spanish-American War of 1898.

§ 12. The Disappointing Quality of Recent Immigration.

Recently there has been a marked change in the nationalities and races of immigrants. In our first period we drew largely from England, somewhat from France, Holland, and Sweden. This period lasted until 1830. We then began to draw very largely upon Germany and Ireland, and drew more largely than before from Scandinavia. This period lasted until about 1880. Since then, while immigrants have

been steadily coming hither from all these countries, we have drawn also many millions from Italy, Australia, Hungary, and Russia. These peoples do not equal in intelligence and character the early immigrants from Western Europe, but they have proven industrious, and in themselves have not been as yet dangerous to American institutions except in one respect. Their lower standards of living have made native born Americans unwilling to associate with them in the daily contact of manual labor. These immigrants and their descendants furnished hundreds of thousands of soldiers and sailors to the country of their adoption in all our wars.

§ 13. The Settlement of Race Struggles.

In the nineteenth century the United States was a field in which not only the Old World ideas came into conflict with each other as in the eighteenth century, but with them New World ideas also struggled. Catholic popes and Spanish kings forbade in the sixteenth century the further enslavement of the Indians, but the red man of the New World never was a profitable slave to any master. In the nineteenth century the question whether the white man has a right to enslave the black man was fought out to a terrible but a final result. Then and there the question of the political equality of all men was determined — white, red, and black. In the same nineteenth century, the people of this country determined to exclude from American society the yellow race as represented by the Chinese. This decision represents the settled policy of our nation, which, though it desires to trade with all peoples, has determined to be the refuge of the oppressed and of the miserable only when their presence does not endanger the integrity of our civilization and culture.

§ 14. Our Intellectual Relations with Europe.

In yet other ways the history of the United States reflects the history of Europe. The printing-press and the steam-engine came to us as inventions of the Old World. Until the middle of the nineteenth century, we relied upon English books as the authoritative basis of our intellectual culture. In the fields of science and industry, our inventions in electricity and our applications of old mechanical principles to new forms of machinery gave us the leadership of the world. In education we have adopted many of the ideas of England and Germany, but our free common school system is essentially original with us. Our religion is European in substance and in form.

§ 15. Our Progress in Ideas has been Toward Freedom.

Beginning necessarily with the ideas of Europe, we have gradually grown out of and beyond them. We began with the idea that the master and the servant are on different levels of rights and duties: to-day all men are equal before the law. We began with the idea that to govern the many is the privilege of the few: to-day we practice the government of all in Town, County, State, and Nation by the will of all. We began with the idea that man is superior and woman inferior: to-day in nearly every respect of law and custom, public and private, men and women are equal. We began with the idea that Church and State must be one: to-day, even in the fact that churches pay no taxes to governments, Church and State are entirely distinct. We began with the idea that knowledge is for the few: to-day the School offers knowledge free to all. In the early days, there was aristocracy in religion, in government, in education, in the family: in these times, there is democracy in

all. And the cause of our freedom and equality is the religious principle that all men are the sons of God, and therefore brothers. From this principle has grown the activity of our people in invention, in science, in commerce, and in ordinary industry; for where opportunities are open and equal to all, there all are ambitious. In a land of great resources, our cheerful activity has made the nation rich beyond the dreams of our forefathers.

§ 16. Our Political Progress has been Democratic.

Since self-government began at Jamestown and Plymouth, until now, there has been a steady advance of our people in freedom through their interest in government and through their control of it. In the nineteenth century, the Electoral College, which was intended to be an aristocratic body to choose the best man President to rule the people, became, through the development of political parties and their nominating conventions, a board that merely registers the people's will. This change was typical of many relating to public office. Through party platforms the people determine the policies of the State and National Governments. By the machinery of parties, we have handled the large questions of the tariff, of internal improvements, of the currency, of peace and war, so that Congress serves, not rules. In the words of Abraham Lincoln, we have here "a government of the people, for the people, and by the people." It is a government so good that it is somewhat better than the people are.

§ 17. The Succession of Political Parties.

The story of our national history began with a people decidedly Federalist. To this party there grew the opposition of a Republican party, which overthrew Hamilton's

aristocratic Federalism to establish in power Jefferson's democratic Republicanism. Federalism not long afterwards itself disappeared, but its purpose was accomplished in the creation of a strong central government. Then the Republicans divided into National Republicans and Democratic Republicans, or Democrats. The National Republicans gave place to the Whigs.

The principles of the Democracy triumphed in the policy of Jackson, who gave the offices of government to his followers among the common people. The Whigs believed in a protective tariff, in internal improvements, in a national bank, and in commercial rather than political management of government affairs. They broke in pieces upon the rock of the slavery question, and wanting a continuance of such leaders as Clay, the great maker of the slavery compromises, and Webster, the great expounder of the Constitution, disappeared.

Meantime other parties came forward: Free-Soilers, opposed to extension of slavery in the Territories; "Know-nothings," opposed to the naturalization of foreigners; and finally Republicans, pledged to maintain the Union and inclined to destroy slavery. Through all these years jurists and statesmen contended with each other regarding the "strict" or "loose" construction of the Constitution, the sovereign rights of a State against centralization, Calhoun against Webster. Then the Democratic party split upon the rock of slavery.

There followed in the period of the War of Secession and in the Reconstruction period, a long interval beginning with Abraham Lincoln in which the Republican party was supreme. It held to the Federalist and Whig policies of

the past, and added liberal pensions to Union soldiers and to their widows. In this epoch of Republican supremacy, there appeared for a time the Greenback party, favoring paper-money instead of "money of redemption;" that is, money to be redeemed in gold. Excessive tariffs protecting industries that no longer needed protection, heavy expenditures for government, and a general feeling that any change would be for the better, at length led to the restoration of the Democratic party under Grover Cleveland to temporary power.

Greenbackism gave place to Populism with its principles of government ownership or control of many lines of business, and of the free coinage of silver at the ratio of "16 to 1," that is, 16 ounces of silver to equal 1 ounce of gold. The Democracy under Bryan allied itself with Populism. This joint-policy has not yet been successful in seeking control of our National Government, which is now Republican. The party in power favors a high protective tariff, a gold-basis for the currency, retention of our island possessions, civil service based on merit, liberal pensions, a great navy, and in general a strong central government.

§ 18. Present Political Problems have not Become Issues.

Upon some great issues now coming forward, the great parties, Republican and Democratic, have not yet declared themselves. Among these issues are government-ownership of railroads, telegraph-lines, and coal-mines, compulsory arbitration of all disputes between labor and capital, government-regulation of the affairs of corporations, and tax-reforms. These questions involve the fundamental problems of individualism and socialism. As rapidly as such ques-

tions are answered, they cease to be questions; and the great parties are forced to new issues.

Consequently since few to-day believe in Jackson's democratic policy, "To the victors belong the spoils," both parties indorse, and when in office generally practice, a civil service conducted upon business principles; and civil service reform has ceased to be a political issue, because it has become an accomplished fact. Certain measures, such as woman suffrage and prohibition of the traffic in alcoholic drinks, have been before the public for a long time without an issue being raised by one great party's taking one view or another. Our new National policy of "imperialism," that is, the control of regions and peoples not in the process of becoming States, has been questioned without any issue being joined.

The Administration of Roosevelt is in a transition epoch, like the earlier Administrations in which the Federalists, the Whigs, and the Democrats broke in pieces.

§ 19. The American Future is Bright.

The history of the United States is a demonstration of the power of the political institutions, embodied in the Constitution and Statutes of the United States and in the Constitution and Statutes of the various separate States, to develop the white race in culture, morality, and wealth. In authority our elected President is the equal of any monarch, of any ruler of the world. Despite the enormous burden of nearly nine million Negroes and of many millions as yet un-Americanized immigrants, such are the spirit, character, and energy of the nation as developed by these three great centuries of our history, that its future is bright with promise. A free press, a free pulpit, a free platform, a free school, a

free ballot, and a free system of land-transfer have made the American people independent, ambitious, self-controlled.

§ 20. Our International Position Brings Responsibilities.

Our international position is secure. Our form of government is regarded as ideal by the most intelligent peoples of the world. In peace, in war, and in diplomacy we have demonstrated our supremacy. By reason of our New World policy we are the protectors of two continents against Old World conquest. Our leadership in America is unquestioned. We are destined to expand south and north by annexation of other lands as States. The influence of our model of government and of our private law is extending constantly. American democracy has established a republican empire of world-wide importance.

§ 21. The Guarantees of Progress.

We have become a nation of people living in villages, towns, and cities, rather than in the more healthful open country. We are commercial and industrial as well as agricultural. Many classes of our population are engaged in hazardous or unhealthful or demoralizing or miserable occupations. In our civilization we are reproducing too much of the evils and sorrows of the Old World. There is a constant struggle between the interests of capital and those of labor, in which all our people are vitally concerned. The hope of domestic peace and progress lies in the maintenance of individual liberty, in the diffusion of wealth, and in the extension of knowledge, that is, in just laws public and private, and in education. To all these great ideas of freedom, justice, fraternity, and equal opportunity, the people of America are dedicated.

§ 22. The Light of American Liberty.

On the evening of October 11, 1492, an Italian sea-captain guiding Spanish ships upon an immortal voyage, saw in the dusk the flickering light of some Indian fisherman upon an unknown coast that he alone had seen by faith. The little light that Columbus saw presaged the great and steady light that has shone now for many years in our New York harbor, the white light in the torch of the Goddess of Liberty. That light has cheered the home-coming of many million American travelers, and has promised liberty to every stranger seeking this as the country of his adoption.

The destiny of every nation is to seek to extend its power and influence farther and farther into the world as long as its own vitality lasts. The light of American liberty must shine abroad, because it shines at home. The better we make our Americanism, the nearer we bring it to the ideals of Franklin, Washington, Jefferson, Lincoln, Emerson, and Lowell, the stronger and the farther American liberty will shine. Nothing less and nothing else than ideal Christian Americanism is our need and the world's need. This ideal Americanism means to realize a condition of society in which men obey the command of Jesus, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself." Only in that happy social relation in which we do to others as we would that they should do to us, can we, as individuals or as a nation, find an abundant life.

§ 23. The American Qualities.

The desire of men since the beginning of history has been for freedom. Only truth can make men free. Religion and science teach us to "Prove all things: hold fast that which is good." Not only religion, but also common sense

commands men to "Be diligent in business; fervent in spirit." These are the American qualities: Mutual consideration; opportunity for all; equality before the law; love of liberty; will to learn the truths of Nature and of human nature; the courage to do and the fortitude to bear; the power of self-criticism; sympathy with the weak and desire to make them strong; freedom from all envy, with pride in the strong, the rich, the learned, as fellowmen of our own blood; reasonableness, tempered by conservatism; diligence in all practical affairs; and hearty enthusiasm for the good. Whatever American life may manifest that does not accord with these qualities is to be deplored and to be removed from the pathway of our progress.

§ 24. The Heritage of Opportunity and Responsibility.

History records events that affect the social welfare for good or ill. We are now making history. To be an American, whether man or boy, woman or girl, is to live in the light of that ever-increasing liberty for which the Puritans first came to these shores, and for which the Patriots fought and bled on many a Revolutionary battlefield. For our liberty, for more than we yet have, for all that we seek to have, and for an abundant life, rich in material things, noble in spiritual ideas, have been spent the lives of millions who have gone before us. They have left to us these treasures of literature, of art, of discovery and invention in science and in industry, of political, religious, economic, and cultural institutions, — treasures of buildings, books, machinery, roads, and treasures of ideas, ideals, aspirations, customs, laws. These are our inheritance as a free people. To hand down our heritage unimpaired in nature and increased in amount to those who are coming after us, and to

extend its treasures generously to peoples not yet as free as ourselves but willing and able to receive them, becomes our duty as loyal Americans.

§ 25. The American People.

"God hath made of one blood all nations of men." This is a truth of religion, of science, and of history. "God is no respecter of persons." This is the teaching of the Declaration of Independence, — "All men are created equal."

The experiment of American democracy is an effort to realize, by institutions of public and private law, the equality of all, — of men, women, and children, of white, red, black, brown, and yellow men, of rich and poor, of learned and ignorant, — with opportunity equally open to all. Within the boundaries of our Republic's vast empire from Porto Rico to Luzon are people to-day of every great race and of nearly every nation. "*E pluribus unum*," "from many one," means "of many States one Nation." But it may well mean also, "of many races one people." Such is the motto of the United States. Such is the meaning, not yet perfectly realized, of the motto upon the great seal of the American Government, "*Nova ordo saeclorum*," a new order of the ages.

Many of the boys and girls who read these pages will in later years read and study the history of other nations. All other history always must seem to us who know something of American history, less inspiring, less splendid than our own wonderful record of progress. It touches our pride to remember that we, too, are Americans. And it touches also our noblest ambitions to promote the progress of all in self-reliance, in industriousness, in wealth, in consideration for others, in intelligence, justice, righteousness, and freedom.

APPENDIX I.

FORMATION OF STATES.

1.	Delaware ratified the Constitution	Dec. 7, 1787
2.	Pennsylvania " "	Dec. 12, 1787
3.	New Jersey " "	Dec. 18, 1787
4.	Georgia " "	Jan. 2, 1788
5.	Connecticut " "	Jan. 9, 1788
6.	Massachusetts " "	Feb. 6, 1788
7.	Maryland " "	Apr. 28, 1788
8.	South Carolina " "	May 23, 1788
9.	New Hampshire " "	June 21, 1788
10.	Virginia " "	June 25, 1788
11.	New York " "	July 26, 1788
12.	North Carolina " "	Nov. 21, 1789
13.	Rhode Island " "	May 29, 1790
14.	Vermont admitted to the Union	Mar. 4, 1791
15.	Kentucky " " "	June 1, 1792
16.	Tennessee " " "	June 1, 1796
17.	Ohio " " "	Nov. 29, 1802
18.	Louisiana " " "	Apr. 30, 1812
19.	Indiana " " "	Dec. 11, 1816
20.	Mississippi " " "	Dec. 10, 1817
21.	Illinois " " "	Dec. 3, 1818
22.	Alabama " " "	Dec. 14, 1819
23.	Maine " " "	Mar. 15, 1820
24.	Missouri " " "	Aug. 10, 1821
25.	Arkansas " " "	June 15, 1836
26.	Michigan " " "	Jan. 26, 1837
27.	Florida " " "	Mar. 3, 1845
28.	Texas " " "	Dec. 29, 1845
29.	Iowa " " "	Dec. 28, 1846
30.	Wisconsin " " "	May 29, 1848
31.	California " " "	Sept. 9, 1850
32.	Minnesota " " "	May 11, 1858
33.	Oregon " " "	Feb. 14, 1859
34.	Kansas " " "	Jan. 29, 1861
35.	West Virginia " " "	June 19, 1863
36.	Nevada " " "	Oct. 31, 1864
37.	Nebraska " " "	Mar. 1, 1867
38.	Colorado " " "	Aug. 1, 1876
39.	North Dakota " " "	Nov. 3, 1889
40.	South Dakota " " "	Nov. 3, 1889
41.	Montana " " "	Nov. 8, 1889
42.	Washington " " "	Nov. 11, 1889
43.	Idaho " " "	July 3, 1890
44.	Wyoming " " "	July 10, 1890
45.	Utah " " "	Jan. 4, 1896

APPENDIX II.

THE PRESIDENTS AND THEIR PARTIES.

Term in Office.	Name.	Party.
1789–1797	George Washington	None
1797–1801	John Adams	Federalist
1801–1809	Thomas Jefferson	Republican
1809–1817	James Madison	Republican
1817–1825	James Monroe	Republican
1825–1829	John Quincy Adams	None
1829–1837	Andrew Jackson	Democratic
1837–1841	Martin Van Buren	Democratic
1841–	William Henry Harrison	Whig
1841–1845	John Tyler	Democratic
1845–1849	James Knox Polk	Democratic
1849–1850	Zachary Taylor	Whig
1850–1853	Millard Fillmore	Whig
1853–1857	Franklin Pierce	Democratic
1857–1861	James Buchanan	Democratic
1861–1865	Abraham Lincoln	Republican
1865–1869	Andrew Johnson	War Democratic
1869–1877	Ulysses Simpson Grant	Republican
1877–1881	Rutherford Birchard Hayes	Republican
1881–	James Abram Garfield	Republican
1881–1885	Chester Alan Arthur	Republican
1885–1889	Grover Cleveland	Democratic
1889–1893	Benjamin Harrison	Republican
1893–1897	Grover Cleveland	Democratic
1897–1901	William McKinley	Republican
1901–	Theodore Roosevelt	Republican

APPENDIX III.

EUROPEAN SOVEREIGNS.

England.	The Continent.
Henry VII, 1485–1509	Age of Ferdinand V, 1466–1516, and Isabella, 1474–1504, of Spain.
Henry VIII, 1509–1547	Age of Charles I(V), 1516–1555, and Philip II, 1555–1598, of Spain and the Holy Roman Empire.
Edward VI, 1547–1553	
Mary, 1553–1558	
Elizabeth, 1558–1603	
James I, 1603–1625	
Charles I, 1625–1649	
Cromwell and the Commonwealth, 1649–1660	
Charles II, 1660–1685	Age of Louis IV, the Grand Monarch of France, 1643–1715.
James II, 1685–1688	
The English Revolution	
William III, 1689–1702	
and Mary, 1689–1694	
Anne, 1702–1714	
George I, 1714–1727	
George II, 1727–1760	
George III, 1760–1820	Age of Napoleon I of France, 1799–1815.
George IV, 1820–1830	
William IV, 1830–1837	
Victoria, 1837–1901	Age of Victoria.
Edward VII, 1901–	

Our English Kings

APPENDIX IV.

IMMIGRATION STATISTICS.

Until 1830 the records of the United States census bureau with regard to immigration are very incomplete. From that time we have the following facts:

	Population.	Number of Immigrants.	Per Cent of Immigrants to Population.	Per Cent of Growth of Population.
1800	5,308,500	. . . .	. . .	30
1810	7,240,000	. . . .	. . .	27
1820	9,634,000	. . . .	. . .	25
1830	12,866,000	143,500	.01	25
1840	17,069,000	599,000	.03	25
1850	23,192,000	1,713,000	.07	27
1860	31,443,000	2,598,000	.08	31
1870	38,558,000	2,315,000	.06	19
1880	50,156,000	2,812,000	.06	22
1890	62,622,000	5,246,000	.08	20
1900	76,303,000	3,687,000	.05	20

Immigration by Decades.

Round Numbers.

	1820–1830	1831–1840	1841–1850	1851–1860	1861–1870	1871–1880	1881–1890	1891–1900
Ireland . . .	50,000	210,000	780,000	915,000	435,000	435,000	655,000	400,000
Great Britain[1]	30,000	90,000	310,000	485,000	860,000	930,000	1,300,000	1,100,000
Germany . .	7,000	150,000	435,000	950,000	790,000	720,000	1,450,000	560,000
Scandinavia .	1,000	2,000	15,000	25,000	125,000	245,000	655,000	400,000
Austria . . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	9,000	75,000	355,000	450,000
Italy	400	2,000	2,000	9,000	12,000	55,000	310,000	550,000
France . . .	8,500	45,000	75,000	75,000	36,000	75,000	60,000	40,000
Russia . . .	100	1,000	1,000	2,000	5,000	50,000	265,000	500,000
Switzerland .	3,000	5,000	5,000	25,000	25,000	30,000	80,000	40,000
Netherlands .	1,000	1,500	8,000	11,000	9,000	17,000	55,000	35,000
China	2	8	35	40,000	65,000	125,000	60,000	22,000
All others[2] . .	45,000	90,000	80,000	60,000	50,000	60,000	110,000	350,000

The number of immigrants in 1901–1903 was equal to the number for the decade ending 1880.

Trace the growth or reduction in numbers from the same country throughout the period.

[1] Including Canada.

[2] Including Turkey, Spain, South America, China, Africa.

APPENDIX V.

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.[1]

In the Congress, July 4, 1776.

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

When in the Course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the Powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the Laws of Nature and of Nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness. That to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed, That whenever any Form of Government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the Right of the People to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new Government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their Safety and Happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that Governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and accordingly all experience hath shown, that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same Object evinces a design to reduce them under absolute Despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such Government, and to provide new Guards for their future security. — Such has been the patient sufferance of these Colonies; and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former Systems of Gov-

[1] The original copy of the Declaration of Independence, as signed at Philadelphia, is kept at the Department of State, Washington, the National Capital. The writing is faded, and some of the signatures have almost disappeared.

The arrangement of paragraphs, the punctuation, and the capitalization here follow the copy in the Journals of Congress, printed by John Dunlap, which agrees with Jefferson's original draft. No names of States appear in the original, though the names from each State are together, except that the signature of Matthew Thornton, New Hampshire, follows that of Oliver Wolcott, Massachusetts.

ernment. The history of the present King of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute Tyranny over these States. To prove this, let Facts be submitted to a candid world.

He has refused his Assent to Laws, the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

He has forbidden his Governors to pass Laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his Assent should be obtained ; and when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

He has refused to pass other Laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of Representation in the Legislature, a right inestimable to them and formidable to tyrants only.

He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the depository of their Public Records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

He has dissolved Representative Houses repeatedly, for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people.

He has refused for a long time, after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected ; whereby the Legislative Powers, incapable of Annihilation, have returned to the People at large for their exercise ; the State remaining in the mean time exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without, and convulsions within.

He has endeavoured to prevent the population of these States ; for that purpose obstructing the Laws for Naturalization of Foreigners ; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new Appropriations of Lands.

He has obstructed the Administration of Justice, by refusing his Assent to Laws for establishing Judiciary Powers.

He has made Judges dependent on his Will alone, for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

He has erected a multitude of New Offices, and sent hither swarms of Officers to harrass our People, and eat out their substance.

He has kept among us, in times of peace, Standing Armies without the Consent of our legislature.

He has affected to render the Military independent of and superior to the Civil Power.

He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws ; giving his Assent to their Acts of pretended Legislation :

For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us :

For protecting them, by a mock Trial, from Punishment for any Murders which they should commit on the Inhabitants of these States :

For cutting off our Trade with all parts of the world :

For imposing taxes on us without our Consent :

For depriving us in many cases, of the benefits of Trial by Jury :

For transporting us beyond Seas to be tried for pretended offences :

For abolishing the free System of English Laws in a neighbouring Province, establishing therein an Arbitrary government, and enlarging its Boundaries so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these Colonies :

For taking away our Charters, abolishing our most valuable Laws, and altering fundamentally the Forms of our Governments :

For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with Power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

He has abdicated Government here, by declaring us out of his Protection and waging War against us.

He has plundered our seas, ravaged our Coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to compleat the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of Cruelty & perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the Head of a civilized nation.

He has constrained our fellow Citizens taken Captive on the high Seas to bear Arms against their Country, to become the executioners of their friends and Brethren, or to fall themselves by their Hands.

He has excited domestic insurrections amongst us, and has endeavoured to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers, the merciless Indian Savages, whose known rule of warfare, is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes and conditions.

In every stage of these Oppressions We have Petitioned for Redress in the most humble terms : Our repeated Petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A Prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a Tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free People.

Nor have We been wanting in attention to our Brittish brethren. We have warned them from time to time of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We

must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity, which denounces our Separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, Enemies in War, in Peace Friends.

We, therefore, the Representatives of the united States of America, in General Congress, Assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the Name, and by Authority of the good People of these Colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be Free and Independent States; that they are Absolved from all Allegiance to the British Crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain, is and ought to be totally dissolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they have full Power to levy War, conclude Peace, contract Alliances, establish Commerce, and to do all other Acts and Things which Independent States may of right do. And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the Protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our Lives, our Fortunes and our sacred Honor.

JOHN HANCOCK.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Josiah Bartlett,
Wm. Whipple,
Matthew Thornton.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY.

Saml. Adams,
John Adams,
Robt. Treat Paine,
Elbridge Gerry.

RHODE ISLAND.

Step. Hopkins,
William Ellery.

CONNECTICUT.

Roger Sherman,
Sam'el Huntington,
Wm. Williams,
Oliver Wolcott.

NEW YORK.

Wm. Floyd,
Phil. Livingston,
Frans. Lewis,
Lewis Morris.

NEW JERSEY.

Richd. Stockton,
Jno. Witherspoon,
Fras. Hopkinson,
John Hart,
Abra. Clark.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Robt. Morris,
Benjamin Rush,
Benja. Franklin,
John Morton,
Geo Clymer,
Jas. Smith,
Geo. Taylor,
James Wilson,
Geo. Ross.

DELAWARE.

Cæsar Rodney,
Geo. Read,
Tho. M'Kean.

MARYLAND.

Samuel Chase,
Wm. Paca,
Thos. Stone,
Charles Carroll of Carrollton.

VIRGINIA.

George Wythe,
Richard Henry Lee,
Th. Jefferson,
Benja. Harrison,
Thos. Nelson, jr.,
Francis Lightfoot Lee,
Carter Braxton.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Wm. Hooper,
Joseph Hewes,
John Penn.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Edward Rutledge,
Thos. Heyward, Junr.,
Thomas Lynch, Junr.,
Arthur Middleton.

GEORGIA.

Button Gwinnett,
Lyman Hall,
Geo. Walton.

APPENDIX VI.

[THE CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.]

We the People of the United States, in Order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE. I.

Section. 1. All legislative Powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

Section. 2. [1] The House of Representatives shall be composed of Members chosen every second Year by the People of the several States, and the Electors in each State shall have the Qualifications requisite for Electors of the most numerous Branch of the State Legislature.

[2] No Person shall be a Representative who shall not have attained to the Age of twenty five Years, and been seven Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

[3] Representatives and direct Taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers,[1] [which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other Persons].[2] The actual Enumeration shall be made within three Years after the first Meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent Term of ten Years, in such Manner as they shall by Law direct. The Number of Representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty Thousand, but each State shall have at Least one Representative; [and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to chuse three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode-Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New-York six,

[1] The apportionment of Representatives under the census of 1900 is one representative to every 193,291.

[2] The clause in brackets has been displaced by the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Amendments.

New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.]

[4] When vacancies happen in the Representation from any State, the Executive Authority thereof shall issue Writs of Election to fill such Vacancies.

[5] The House of Representatives shall chuse their Speaker[1] and other Officers; and shall have the sole Power of Impeachment.

SECTION. 3. [1] The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six Years; and each Senator shall have one Vote.

[2] Immediately after they shall be assembled in Consequence of the first Election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three Classes. The Seats of the Senators of the first Class shall be vacated at the Expiration of the second Year, of the second Class at the Expiration of the fourth Year, and of the third Class at the Expiration of the sixth Year, so that one third may be chosen every second Year; and if Vacancies happen by Resignation, or otherwise, during the Recess of the Legislature of any State, the Executive thereof may make temporary Appointments until the next Meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such Vacancies.

[3] No Person shall be a Senator who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty Years, and been nine Years a Citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an Inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

[4] The Vice President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no Vote, unless they be equally divided.

[5] The Senate shall chuse their other Officers, and also a President pro tempore, in the Absence of the Vice President, or when he shall exercise the Office of President of the United States.

[6] The Senate shall have the sole Power to try all Impeachments. When sitting for that Purpose, they shall be on Oath or Affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief Justice shall preside: And no Person shall be convicted without the Concurrence of two thirds of the Members present.

[7] Judgment in Cases of Impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from Office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any Office of honor, Trust or Profit under the United States: but the Party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to Indictment, Trial, Judgment and Punishment, according to Law.

[1] The Speaker is always one of the Representatives; the other Officers are not.

SECTION. 4. [1] The Times, Places and Manner of holding Elections for Senators and Representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by Law make or alter such Regulations, except as to the Places of chusing Senators.

[2] The Congress shall assemble at least once in every Year, and such Meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by Law appoint a different Day.

SECTION. 5. [1] Each House shall be the Judge of the Elections, Returns and Qualifications of its own Members, and a Majority of each shall constitute a Quorum to do Business; but a smaller Number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the Attendance of absent Members, in such Manner, and under such Penalties as each House may provide.

[2] Each House may determine the Rules of its Proceedings, punish its Members for disorderly Behaviour, and, with the Concurrence of two thirds, expel a Member.

[3] Each House shall keep a Journal of its Proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such Parts as may in their Judgment require Secrecy; and the Yeas and Nays of the Members of either House on any question shall, at the Desire of one fifth of those Present, be entered on the Journal.

[4] Neither House, during the Session of Congress, shall, without the Consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other Place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

SECTION. 6. [1] The Senators and Representatives shall receive a Compensation [1] for their Services, to be ascertained by Law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States. They shall in all Cases, except Treason, Felony and Breach of the Peace, be privileged from Arrest during their Attendance at the Session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any Speech or Debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other Place.

[2] No Senator or Representative shall, during the Time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil Office under the Authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the Emoluments whereof shall have been encreased during such time; and no Person holding any Office under the United States, shall be a Member of either House during his Continuance in Office.

[1] At present (1903) this is "$5000 per annum, with $125 annual allowance for stationery and newspapers, and a mileage allowance of twenty cents per mile of travel each way from their homes at each annual session."

Section. 7. [1] All Bills for raising Revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with Amendments as on other Bills.

[2] Every Bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it becomes a Law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve he shall sign it, but if not he shall return it, with his Objections to that House in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the Objections at large on their Journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such Reconsideration two thirds of that House shall agree to pass the Bill, it shall be sent, together with the Objections, to the other House, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that House, it shall become a Law. But in all such Cases the Votes of both Houses shall be determined by yeas and Nays, and the Names of the Persons voting for and against the Bill shall be entered on the Journal of each House respectively. If any Bill shall not be returned by the President within ten Days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the Same shall be a Law, in like Manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their Adjournment prevent its Return, in which Case it shall not be a Law.

[3] Every Order, Resolution, or Vote to which the Concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of Adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take Effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the Rules and Limitations prescribed in the Case of a Bill.

Section. 8. [1] The Congress shall have Power To lay and collect Taxes, Duties, Imposts and Excises, to pay the Debts and provide for the common Defence and general Welfare of the United States; but all Duties, Imposts and Excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

[2] To borrow Money on the credit of the United States;

[3] To regulate Commerce with foreign Nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian Tribes;

[4] To establish an uniform Rule of Naturalization, and uniform Laws on the subject of Bankruptcies throughout the United States;

[5] To coin Money, regulate the Value thereof, and of foreign Coin, and fix the Standard of Weights and Measures;

[6] To provide for the Punishment of counterfeiting the Securities and current Coin of the United States;

[7] To establish Post Offices and post Roads;

[8] To promote the Progress of Science and useful Arts, by securing for limited Times to Authors and Inventors the exclusive Right to their respective Writings and Discoveries ;

[9] To constitute Tribunals inferior to the supreme Court ;

[10] To define and punish Piracies and Felonies committed on the high Seas, and Offences against the Law of Nations ;

[11] To declare War, grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal, and make Rules concerning Captures on Land and Water ;

[12] To raise and support Armies, but no Appropriation of Money to that Use shall be for a longer Term than two Years ;

[13] To provide and maintain a Navy ;

[14] To make Rules for the Government and Regulation of the land and naval Forces ;

[15] To provide for calling forth the Militia to execute the Laws of the Union, suppress Insurrections and repel Invasions ;

[16] To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining, the Militia, and for governing such Part of them as may be employed in the Service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively, the Appointment of the Officers, and the Authority of training the Militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress ;

[17] To exercise exclusive Legislation in all Cases whatsoever, over such District (not exceeding ten Miles square) as may, by Cession of particular States, and the Acceptance of Congress, become the Seat of the Government of the United States, and to exercise like Authority over all Places purchased by the Consent of the Legislature of the State in which the Same shall be, for the Erection of Forts, Magazines, Arsenals, dock-Yards, and other needful Buildings ; — And

[18] To make all Laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into Execution the foregoing Powers, and all other Powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or in any Department or Officer thereof.

Section. 9. [1] [The Migration or Importation of such Persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the Year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a Tax or duty may be imposed on such Importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each Person.][1]

[2] The Privilege of the Writ of Habeas Corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in Cases of Rebellion or Invasion the public Safety may require it.

[1] A temporary clause no longer in force.

[3] No Bill of Attainder or ex post facto Law shall be passed.

[4] No Capitation, or other direct, Tax shall be laid, unless in Proportion to the Census or Enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

[5] No Tax or Duty shall be laid on Articles exported from any State.

[6] No Preference shall be given by any Regulation of Commerce or Revenue to the Ports of one State over those of another: nor shall Vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay Duties in another.

[7] No Money shall be drawn from the Treasury, but in Consequence of Appropriations made by Law; and a regular Statement and Account of the Receipts and Expenditures of all public Money shall be published from time to time.

[8] No Title of Nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no Person holding any Office of Profit or Trust under them, shall, without the Consent of the Congress, accept of any present, Emolument, Office, or Title, of any kind whatever, from any King, Prince, or foreign State.[1]

SECTION. 10. [1] No State shall enter into any Treaty, Alliance, or Confederation; grant Letters of Marque and Reprisal; coin Money; emit Bills of Credit; make any Thing but gold and silver Coin a Tender in Payment of Debts; pass any Bill of Attainder, ex post facto Law, or Law impairing the Obligation of Contracts, or grant any Title of Nobility.

[2] No State shall, without the Consent of the Congress, lay any Imposts of Duties on Imports or Exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing it's inspection Laws: and the net Produce of all Duties and Imposts, laid by any State on Imports or Exports, shall be for the Use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such Laws shall be subject to the Revision and Controul of the Congress.

[3] No State shall, without the Consent of Congress, lay any Duty of Tonnage, keep Troops, or Ships of War in time of Peace, enter into any Agreement or Compact with another State, or with a foreign Power, or engage in War, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent Danger as will not admit of delay.[2]

ARTICLE. II.

SECTION. 1. [1] The executive Power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his Office during the Term of four Years, and, together with the Vice President, chosen for the same Term, be elected, as follows

[1] The personal rights enumerated in Section 9, have been increased, and extended by, Amendments I.–X.

[2] The provisions of Section 10 have been modified and extended by Amendments XIII.–XV.

[2] Each State shall appoint, in such Manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a Number of Electors, equal to the whole Number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress: but no Senator or Representative, or Person holding an Office of Trust or Profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.

[3] [The Electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by Ballot for two Persons, of whom one at least shall not be an Inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a List of all the Persons voted for, and of the Number of Votes for each; which List they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the Seat of the Government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the Presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the Certificates, and the Votes shall then be counted. The Person having the greatest Number of Votes shall be the President, if such Number be a Majority of the whole Number of Electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal Number of Votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately chuse by Ballot one of them for President; and if no Person have a Majority, then from the five highest on the List the said House shall in like Manner chuse the President. But in chusing the President, the Votes shall be taken by States, the Representation from each State having one Vote; A quorum for this Purpose shall consist of a Member or Members from two thirds of the States, and a Majority of all the States shall be necessary to a Choice. In every Case, after the Choice of the President, the Person having the greatest Number of Votes of the Electors shall be the Vice President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal Votes, the Senate shall chuse from them by Ballot the Vice President.][1]

[4] The Congress may determine the Time of chusing the Electors, and the Day on which they shall give their Votes; which Day shall be the same throughout the United States.

[5] No Person except a natural born Citizen, or a Citizen of the United States, at the time of the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the Office of President; neither shall any Person be eligible to that Office who shall not have attained to the Age of thirty five Years, and been fourteen Years a Resident within the United States.

[6] In Case of the Removal of the President from Office, or of his Death, Resignation, or Inability to discharge the Powers and Duties of the said Office, the Same shall devolve on the Vice President, and the Congress

[1] This clause has been displaced by the Twelfth Amendment.

may by Law provide for the Case of Removal, Death, Resignation or Inability, both of the President and Vice President, declaring what Officer shall then act as President, and such Officer shall act accordingly, until the Disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

[7] The President shall, at stated Times, receive for his Services, a Compensation, which shall neither be encreased nor diminished during the Period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that Period any other Emolument from the United States, or any of them.

[8] Before he enter on the Execution of his Office, he shall take the following Oath or Affirmation: — "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the Office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my Ability, preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States."

SECTION. 2. [1] The President shall be Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the Militia of the several States, when called into the actual Service of the United States; he may require the Opinion, in writing, of the principal Officer in each of the executive Departments, upon any Subject relating to the Duties of their respective Offices, and he shall have Power to grant Reprieves and Pardons for Offences against the United States, except in Cases of Impeachment.

[2] He shall have Power, by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, to make Treaties, provided two thirds of the Senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the Advice and Consent of the Senate, shall appoint Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the supreme Court, and all other Officers of the United States, whose Appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law: but the Congress may by Law vest the Appointment of such inferior Officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the Courts of Law, or in the Heads of Departments.

[3] The President shall have Power to fill up all Vacancies that may happen during the Recess of the Senate, by granting Commissions which shall expire at the End of their next Session.

SECTION. 3. [1] He shall from time to time give to the Congress Information of the State of the Union, and recommend to their Consideration such Measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary Occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in Case of Disagreement between them, with Respect to the Time of Adjournment, he may adjourn them to such Time as he shall think proper; he shall receive Ambassadors and other public Ministers; he shall take

Care that the Laws be faithfully executed, and shall Commission all the Officers of the United States.

SECTION. 4. [1] The President, Vice President and all civil Officers of the United States, shall be removed from Office on Impeachment for, and Conviction of, Treason, Bribery, or other high Crimes and Misdemeanors.

ARTICLE. III.

SECTION. 1. [1] The judicial power of the United States, shall be vested in one supreme Court, and in such inferior Courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The Judges, both of the supreme and inferior Courts, shall hold their Offices during good Behaviour, and shall, at stated Times, receive for their Services, a Compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in Office.

SECTION. 2. [1] The judicial Power shall extend to all cases, in Law and Equity, arising under this Constitution, the Laws of the United States, and Treaties made, or which shall be made, under their Authority ; — to all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls ; — to all Cases of admiralty and maritime Jurisdiction ; — to Controversies to which the United States shall be a Party ; — to Controversies between two or more States ; — between a State and Citizens of another State ;[1] between Citizens of different States, — between Citizens of the same State claiming Lands under Grants of different States, and between a State, or the Citizens thereof, and foreign States, Citizens or Subjects.

[2] In all Cases affecting Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, and those in which a State shall be Party, the supreme Court shall have original Jurisdiction. In all the other Cases before mentioned, the supreme Court shall have appellate Jurisdiction, both as to Law and Fact, with such Exceptions, and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

[3] The Trial of all Crimes, except in Cases of Impeachment, shall be by Jury ; and such Trial shall be held in the State where the said Crimes shall have been committed ; but when not committed within any State, the Trial shall be at such Place or Places as the Congress may by Law have directed.

SECTION. 3. [1] Treason against the United States, shall consist only in levying War against them, or in adhering to their Enemies, giving them Aid and Comfort. No Person shall be convicted of Treason unless on the Testimony of two Witnesses to the same overt Act, or on Confession in open Court.

[2] The Congress shall have Power to declare the Punishment of Treason, but no Attainder of Treason shall work Corruption of Blood, or Forfeiture except during the Life of the Person attainted.

[1] Modified by the Eleventh Amendment.

ARTICLE. IV.

Section. 1. [1] Full Faith and Credit shall be given in each State to the public Acts, Records, and judicial Proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general Laws prescribe the Manner in which such Acts, Records and Proceedings shall be proved, and the Effect thereof.

Section. 2. [1] The Citizens of each State shall be entitled to all Privileges and Immunities of Citizens in the several States.[1]

[2] A Person charged in any State with Treason, Felony, or other Crime, who shall flee from Justice, and be found in another State, shall on Demand of the executive Authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having Jurisdiction of the Crime.

[3] [No Person held to Service or Labour in one State, under the Laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in Consequence of any Law or Regulation therein, be discharged from such Service or Labour, but shall be delivered up on Claim of the Party to whom such Service or Labour may be due.] [2]

Section. 3. [1] New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the Jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the Junction of two or more States, or Parts of States, without the Consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

[2] The Congress shall have Power to dispose of and make all needful Rules and Regulations respecting the Territory or other Property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to Prejudice any Claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

Section. 4. [1] The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a Republican Form of Government, and shall protect each of them against Invasion; and on Application of the Legislature, or of the Executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened) against domestic Violence.

ARTICLE. V.

[1] The Congress, whenever two thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose Amendments to this Constitution, or, on the Application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a Convention for proposing Amendments, which, in either Case, shall be valid to all Intents and Purposes, as Part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by Conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other Mode of Ratification may be proposed by the Congress; Provided that [no Amend-

[1] Extended by the Fourteenth Amendment.
[2] Displaced by the Thirteenth Amendment.

ment which may be made prior to the Year One thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any Manner affect the first and fourth Clauses in the Ninth Section of the first Article; and that][1] no State, without its Consent, shall be deprived of it's equal Suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE. VI.

[1] All Debts contracted and Engagements entered into, before the Adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

[2] This Constitution, and the Laws of the United States which shall be made in Pursuance thereof; and all Treaties made, or which shall be made, under the Authority of the United States, shall be the supreme Law of the Land; and the Judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any Thing in the Constitution or Laws of any State to the Contrary notwithstanding.

[3] The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the Members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial Officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by Oath or Affirmation, to support this Constitution; but no religious Test shall ever be required as a Qualification to any Office or public Trust under the United States.

ARTICLE. VII.

[1] The Ratification of the Conventions of nine States, shall be sufficient for the Establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the Same.

The Word, "the", being interlined between the seventh and eighth Lines of the first Page, The Word "Thirty" being partly written on an Erazure in the fifteenth Line of the first Page, The Words "is tried" being interlined between the thirty second and thirty third Lines of the first Page and the Word "the" being interlined between the forty third and forty fourth Lines of the second Page.

[NOTE BY PRINTER.— The interlined and re-written words, mentioned in the above explanation, are in this edition, printed in their proper places in the text.]

DONE in Convention by the Unanimous Consent of the States present the Seventeenth Day of September in the Year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and Eighty seven and of the Independance of the United States of America the Twelfth **In Witness** whereof We have hereunto subscribed our Names,

GO: WASHINGTON — *Presidt.*
and deputy from Virginia

Attest WILLIAM JACKSON *Secretary*

[1] Temporary in its nature.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

John Langdon
Nicholas Gilman

MASSACHUSETTS.

Nathaniel Gorham
Rufus King

CONNECTICUT.

Wm: Saml. Johnson
Roger Sherman

NEW YORK.

Alexander Hamilton

NEW JERSEY.

Wil: Livingston
David Brearley.
Wm. Paterson.
Jona: Dayton

PENNSYLVANIA.

B Franklin
Thomas Mifflin
Robt. Morris
Geo. Clymer
Thos. Fitz Simons
Jared Ingersoll
James Wilson
Gouv Morris

DELAWARE.

Geo: Read
Gunning Bedford jun
John Dickinson
Richard Bassett
Jaco: Broom

MARYLAND.

James McHenry
Dan of St Thos. Jenifer
Danl Carroll

VIRGINIA.

John Blair —
James Madison Jr.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Wm: Blount
Richd. Dobbs Spaight.
Hu Williamson

SOUTH CAROLINA.

J. Rutledge
Charles Cotesworth Pinckney
Charles Pinckney
Pierce Butler.

GEORGIA.

William Few
Abr Baldwin

ARTICLES

in Addition to, and Amendment of the Constitution of the United States of America, proposed by Congress and ratified by the Legislatures of the Several States, pursuant to the Fifth Article of the Constitution.

[ARTICLE I.]

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.

[ARTICLE II.]

A well regulated Militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear Arms, shall not be infringed.

[ARTICLE III.]

No Soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house, without the consent of the Owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

[ARTICLE IV.]

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no Warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by Oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

[ARTICLE V.]

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a Grand Jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the Militia, when in actual service in time of War or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any Criminal Case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

[ARTICLE VI.]

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining Witnesses in his favor, and to have the Assistance of Counsel for his defence.

[ARTICLE VII.]

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any Court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

[ARTICLE VIII.]

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

[ARTICLE IX.]

The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

[ARTICLE X.] [1]

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

[ARTICLE XI.] [2]

The Judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by Citizens of another State, or by Citizens or Subjects of any Foreign State.

[ARTICLE XII.] [3]

The Electors shall meet in their respective states, and vote by ballot for President and Vice President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same state with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate; — The President of the Senate shall, in presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates and the votes shall then be counted; — The person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by states, the

[1] Amendments I.–X. were proclaimed to be in force December 15, 1791.
[2] Proclaimed to be in force January 8, 1798.
[3] Proclaimed to be in force September 25, 1804.

representation from each state having one vote ; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the states, and a majority of all the states shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice President, shall be the Vice President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed, and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice President ; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice President of the United States.

[ARTICLE XIII.] [1]

SECTION 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

SECTION 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

[ARTICLE XIV.] [2]

SECTION 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States ; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law ; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SECTION 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the Executive and Judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being

[1] Proclaimed to be in force December 18, 1865.
[2] Proclaimed to be in force July 28, 1868.

twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion, or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

SECTION 3. No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, or elector of President and Vice President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath, as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may by a vote of two-thirds of each House, remove such disability.

SECTION 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss of emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SECTION 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

[ARTICLE XV.] [1]

SECTION 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SECTION 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

NOTE.—Those parts of the document in brackets [ ] are not in the original, or have been modified or displaced by Amendments, or were temporary in their character. Spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and paragraphing follow the original copy in the Department of State, Washington.

[1] Proclaimed to be in force March 30, 1870.

APPENDIX VII.

BIBLIOGRAPHY AND SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

Source Materials.

1. Hart's *American History Told by Contemporaries* is the best collection of source materials as yet made easily available. It is invaluable to the teacher and interesting to pupils. (4 vols. Cost about $10.00. Macmillan, N.Y.)
2. *Old South Leaflets.* (Old South, Boston; also Heath, Boston.)
3. Channing and Hart's *American History Leaflets.* (Lovell, N.Y.)
4. Caldwell's *American History.* (Ainsworth, Chicago.)
5. *Messages and Papers of the Presidents.* (10 vols. U. S. Government, Washington.) Many second-hand copies are in the market.
6. Hart's *Source Book.* (Macmillan, N.Y.)
7. Hart's *Source Readers in American History.* (4 vols. Illustrated. Low-priced. Macmillan, N.Y.) Juvenile and interesting.
8. *American Historical Quarterly.* (Published by American Historical Association. Also Macmillan, N.Y.) Back vols. bound are valuable both for source materials and book reviews.
9. MacDonald's *Select Charters and Statutes of American History.* (3 vols. Macmillan, N.Y.) Invaluable.
10. Hill's *Liberty Documents.* (Longmans, Green, N.Y.)
11. Preston's *Illustrative Documents.* (Putnams, N.Y.)
12. Johnston's *Representative American Orations.* (3 vols. Putnams, N.Y.)

Standard Texts.

13. Hart's *Epochs of American History.* (3 vols. Low-priced. Longmans, Green, N.Y.) I. Thwaites's *Colonies*, 1492–1750: II. Hart's *Formation of the Union*, 1750–1829: III. Wilson's *Division and Re-union*, 1829–1880. Excellent bibliographies. The best brief presentation yet made of American history.
14. Channing's *Students' History of the U. S.* (Macmillan, N.Y.) Very thorough, except that wars are scarcely treated at all.
15. McLaughlin's *History of the American Nation.* (Appleton, N.Y.) Admirable presentation of the philosophy of American history.
16. Adams and Trent's *History of the U. S.* (Allyn & Bacon, Boston.) Non-partisan. Well illustrated.

Single-volume Accounts.

17. Thorpe's *History of the American People.* (McClurg, Chicago.) The best single volume of comment upon our history.
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76. Strong and Shaeffer's *Government of the American People.* (Houghton, Mifflin, Boston.)

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78. Seawell's *Twelve Naval Captains.* (Scribners, N.Y.)
79. Duyckinck's *Portrait Gallery of Famous Americans.* (Johnson, Fry, N.Y.)
80. Hinsdale's *How to Study and Teach History.* (Appleton, N.Y.)
81. Mace's *Method in History.* (Ginn, Boston.)
82. Dellenbaugh's *North Americans of Yesterday.* Indians. (Putnams, N.Y.)
83. Brinton's *American Race.* (McKay, Philadelphia.)
84. Bryce's *American Commonwealth.* (Macmillan, N.Y. 2 vols., also 1 vol. abridgement.)
85. Larned's *Literature of American History.* (Houghton, Mifflin, Boston.) Fine bibliography.
86. *Report of Committee of Seven of American Historical Association.*

(Macmillan, N.Y.) I disagree profoundly with the order recommended, but recognize many valuable suggestions.

87. *Report of Committee of Ten, National Educational Association.* (Amer. Bk. Co., N.Y.)
88. Bourne's *The Teaching of History and Civics.* (Longmans, Green, N.Y.)
89. Channing and Hart's *Guide to American History.* (Ginn, Boston.)
90. *Story of the West Series.* Grinnel's Indian, Saut's Trapper, Forsyth's Soldier, etc.
91. Woodburn's *American Republic and its Government.* (Putnams, N.Y.)

Historical Fiction.

92. Wells Smith's *The Young Puritans in King Philip's War.*
93. Cooper's *Last of the Mohicans.* Early Indians.
94. Griffis's *Pathfinders of the Revolution.* Iroquois Indians.
95. Coffin's *Boys of '76.* 1776.
96. Carr's *A Little Daughter of the Revolution.* 1776.
97. True's *Morgan's Men.* 1776.
98. Kennedy's *Horseshoe Robinson.* 1776.
99. Churchill's *Richard Carvel.* 1776.
100. Hain's *The Cruise of the Petrel.* 1812.
101. G. C. Eggleston's *Captain Sam, Boy Scout of 1814.*
102. Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin.* Slavery.
103. Munroe's *Golden Days of '49.* 1849.
104. Coffin's *Boys of '61.* 1861.
105. Churchill's *The Crisis.* 1861.
106. Benton's *As Seen from the Ranks.* 1861.
107. Brooks's *Century Book for Young Americans.* Our government.

Correlations of History and Literature.

Longfellow's *Hiawatha.* Early Indians.
Longfellow's *Evangeline.* Intercolonial Wars.
Thackeray's *Virginians.* George Washington.
Holme's *Old Ironsides.* War of 1812.
Lowell's *Biglow Papers.* Mexican War.
Stedman's *American Anthology.* Poetry.
Stedman's *Wanted — A Man.* Civil War, 1862.
Read's *Sheridan's Ride.* Civil War. 1864.
Lowell's *Commemoration Ode.* (Lincoln.)
Hale's *The Man Without a Country.*

These are but suggestions. Bryant wrote many historical poems. Whittier was the great anti-slavery poet.

Maps.

Channing and Hart's *Smaller Outline Maps.* (Heath, Boston.)
New Century Development Maps. (Morse, N.Y.) Outlines.
U.S. Government Survey Maps.
Also large maps of standard makers. (Rand, McNally, Chicago, etc., etc.)

Encyclopedias.

Larned's *History for Ready Reference.* (6 vols. Nichols, Springfield, Mass.) Universal history. Excellent bibliography upon American history.
Harper's *Encyclopedia of U. S. History.* (10 vols. Harpers, N.Y.) Unusually accurate for so large a work.
Of the general encyclopedias, the *Britannica* (tenth edition) and the *Universal* are perhaps the most accurate and thorough.

The catalogues of the publishers will be found helpful: *e.g.* Macmillan: Houghton: Scribners: Putnams: Harpers: Little: Longmans: McClurg: Burrows: Clark. There are bibliographies in many of the books in the foregoing list. See Nos. 1, 13–16, 28, 85, 86, 88, 89.

See also the catalogues of the general booksellers. Many books actually as good as new come into the possession of the second-hand booksellers. Rare books are also to be found in their possession. Parents, citizens, or friends of the school will often donate or lend books.

Illustrated books are very valuable in the early years of historical study.

For a discussion of the methods of modern historical study, see Chancellor's *Present Aspects of History.* (Educational Foundations, Sept., 1899. Kellogg, N.Y.) Deals with truth, and how to find it.

The brevity of the foregoing list compels me to omit many titles of valuable books. I shall be ready at any time to answer inquiries addressed in care of the publishers, New York, regarding books, authorities, etc. On request I will furnish prices and make suggestions for purchases.

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Nos. 1, 12, 28, 32, 37, 39, 58, 60, 65, 67.

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